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The Essentials of the New History*

BY PROFESSOR HARRY E. BARNES, SMITH COLLEGE

I. INTRODUCTORY OBSERVATIONS

It is probable that no other term passing current among historians is capable of giving rise to so sharply differentiated a glandular response, or is so potent in upsetting our endocrine balance as the phrase, "The New History." To the older type of historian these words are equivalent to offering a Grand Kleagle or Supreme Wizard of the Ku Kluxers a *plat du jour* composed of Irish stew garnished with unleavened bread. To the embattled followers of Professor James Harvey Robinson the phrase quickens the pulse and stiffens the spine much as the unfurling of the banner of the cross brought about similar physiological changes upon the part of the medieval crusaders. Others, while sympathetic with the movement away from the older episodic political history, are, nevertheless, annoyed by the term, because it is associated in their minds with a somewhat bellicose propaganda, irritating to sensitive nerves attuned to the sombre silences of library stacks, book lofts, and secluded studies, and accustomed to the conventional professional urbanity and serene composure of the academic American historians. We shall endeavor in this paper to present a conciliatory appraisal of the "New History," to outline the program implied in its assumptions and aspirations and to indicate the preparation essential to its cultivation. Whatever the defects in this presentation, such an exercise is valuable, as the new history cannot be successfully cultivated in an aimless or indifferent manner. We must know what we want to achieve and how to secure such results.

The first question, one raised with subtlety and cogency by Professor Carl Becker in his review of my *New History and the Social Studies* in the *Saturday Review of Literature* for August 15, 1925, relates to the actual nature and scope of the new history and to the validity of its claim to novelty. It has generally been held that the "New History" means a type of historical writing which has abandoned the Freemanesque conception of the adequacy of history as "past politics," anecdotally organized and episodically expounded. It is conventionally presented as a mode of historical exposition which attempts in the broadest way to reconstruct the history of civilization in its totality—being, as Professor Robinson expresses it, "all that we know about everything that man has ever done or thought or hoped or felt." As to the scope of the new history this view is, in a rough general way, adequate and accurate, but even more fundamental is the triumph

of the genetic orientation and objectives.

But this revised and more expansive conception of the scope and task of history carries with it by firm implication another and equally fundamental requirement or obligation; namely, a type of training adequate to allow the aspiring historian to execute these more exacting tasks of his profession with confidence and success. This broader training must consist primarily in such a grasp upon the nature of man and his relations with his natural and social environments as to enable one to cope with the difficult problem of reconstructing the diverse phases of the history of civilization and to analyze that institutional evolution which preserves the record of man's gradual conquest of his material surroundings and his ever greater success in organizing the co-operative efforts of mankind. In other words, those looking forward to work in the "New History" must be thoroughly grounded in biology, anthropogeography, psychology, and sociology. They must also be particularly trained in such of the special social sciences or in such branches of science or aesthetics as are most germane and indispensable to the particular aspect of historical writing in which they intend to engage.¹

So much for the scope of the "New History"; what about the legitimacy of its claim to the embellishing adjective which proclaims its alleged novelty? In its meaning as a range of historical interests wider than politics and diplomacy, there can be no valid claim for absolute or unique novelty. The first comprehensive historical work, Herodotus's *History of the Persian War*, was in many ways a contribution to cultural history, and in every subsequent age there have been writers whose interest in the past transcended military campaigns and party conflicts, if only to expend itself in the miracles achieved by a saint's femur or the ravages wrought by witches. The chief claim which the "New History" can make as to novelty with respect to the scope of its subject-matter relates to the degree to which this point of view has gained acceptance in the present age. In previous generations the writers on the history of culture were lonely and often despised individuals. Today, an overwhelming majority of the younger historians have brazenly espoused the prospectus of the "New History," while many of the older exponents of conventional historical writing have capitulated or are showing signs of weakening morale, something far more significant and more provocative of rejoicing than the conversion of the ninety-and-nine exuberant youths. The triumph of the evolutionary viewpoint and the genetic attitude, leading the historian to be chiefly interested in showing how

* Paper read in part at the meeting of the American Historical Association, December 28, 1926.

the present order has come into being, is a distinct achievement. This is the real "New History" at its best.²

As a new conception of the preliminary preparation necessary to study and write history, the contentions of the "New History" are truly novel and unique. Down to the time of von Ranke, while there were a few writers like Polybius and Mabillon who insisted on special training and qualifications for the historian, it was generally held that literary ambitions and a flowing style qualified any person to attack history in a serious fashion. Von Ranke and his successors declared that one must prepare for historical work by intensive training in the principles of documentary criticism and historical bibliography. The contention that the historian must be thoroughly equipped with knowledge of the social sciences is a much more recent position. The social sciences have only recently arrived at that state where their subject-matter is sufficiently reliable to serve as a dependable foundation for historical insight and analysis. The notion that history must rely upon the social sciences as much as upon diplomatic or paleography is a very late discovery, indeed. It will probably be ultimately conceded that the most original and novel section of Professor Robinson's revolutionary work, *The New History*—that manifesto of the new historical order—is the chapter on "The New Allies of History." The "New History," then, is new in the sense of the more general acceptance of a broader set of interests by the majority of historians in the western world, and, particularly, with respect to its genetic orientation and to the recognition of the more extensive preparation necessary for a competent execution of its aims and methods.³

II. SOME PHASES OF THE TRIUMPH OF THE "NEW HISTORY"

The development of the "New History" seems to have been the product of many different factors and influences. In the first place, there were a number of writers whose individual interests combined a deep concern with the past with a wider outlook than that afforded by politics, diplomacy, and military strategy. With Wilhelm Riehl it was a romantic story-teller's interest in the Middle Ages; with Freytag a dramatist's projection of his creative insight into the past of his own country; with Burckhardt an aesthete's appreciation of artistic achievements in the great epoch of Italian art; with Renan, Draper, and Andrew D. White the rationalist's omnivorous appetite for facts relating to the intellectual emancipation of the race; with Green the craving of a sensitive and cultured soul for a more adequate portrayal of the real basis of his country's greatness; with McMaster the appreciation by a practically-minded engineer of the engrossing nature of the story of national evolution based upon the life and interests of all classes.⁴

Another powerful influence was that exerted by the evolutionary hypothesis, particularly the genetic interests of the biologists. As Professor Robinson has so often stated, it was the biologists who first taught the historians the principle of development

and the genetic attitude which must be regarded as the corner-stone of the more vital phases of the "New History." The primary concern of the historian of the modern stripe with how things have come about has been due chiefly to the reaction of the evolutionary philosophy upon the more alert and receptive historical minds. In other words, the historical point of view was missed by the historians for three thousand years and had to be supplied by the natural scientists, though Hume and Turgot in the eighteenth century caught glimpses of a possible science of social change.⁵

This genetic interest in tracing the origins of things came at a time when civilization had been profoundly revolutionized by great scientific, technological, and economic transformations, so that tracing the development of culture and institutions could no longer mean merely constitutional history, party development, the genesis of diplomatic entanglements, or the genealogy of dynasties. It has come to mean such things as the genesis of the dynamo, surgical anaesthesia, international exchange, radio-activity, mental hygiene, the factory-system, the internal combustion engine, the Bessemer process, mechanical devices, the printing-press, and a host of other achievements which had never disturbed the slumbers of the complacent Freeman. In other words, the impulse to find out how the present order had arisen arrived at a time when the prevailing civilization no longer presented itself in the most interesting and dramatic fashion under the guise of a few gentlemen struggling for economic privilege, political prestige, and the power to amuse themselves at the expense of the lives of the poor puppets who constituted the paid standing armies of despots more or less benevolent. This virtually forced an interest in the history of civilization.⁶

The genetic method of tracing development led thoughtful students to the next and final stage in the evolution of the "New History"; namely, the effort to interpret historical evolution in such a fashion as to discover what significance, if any, attaches to the mutations of civilizations and the genesis of social institutions. While the more up-to-date type of historian no longer hopes to discover the will of God or the ultimate destiny of mankind in the record of the past,⁷ as did those who were wont to view history as philosophy teaching by experience, yet it must be conceded that the only significant events in the past are those which have significance for the illumination of the present or future generations. Further, the only real value which history possesses is its potential aid in enabling us better to understand and control our own civilization.⁸

In the work of putting together these various impulses to the formulation and launching of the new history the chief figures have been Karl Lamprecht, Henri Berr, James Harvey Robinson, F. J. Teggart, and F. S. Marvin.

Lamprecht's system grew out of his interest in cultural anthropology, the psychological approach of Wundt, Comte's attempt at a psychological interpre-

tation of human progress, and his own wide cultural interests extending from economic evolution to musical history. Whatever one may think of Lamprecht's system and historical formulæ, his work was the first to launch the controversy that has finally ended in the definitive triumph of the "New History."

Henri Berr has not only written learnedly on the theoretical aspects of historical synthesis, but has also projected a stupendous series, *L'Evolution de l'Humanité*, designed actually to achieve this synthesis. His theoretical background is to be found in a sociological view of institutional evolution, a desire to introduce a scientific attitude towards historical causation, the elaboration of a so-called logic of historical synthesis, and a world point of view, making his conception of historical synthesis truly coextensive with a study of the history of humanity as a whole.

James Harvey Robinson has not evolved any system of theoretical principles in regard to history.⁹ His conversion to dynamic history came gradually and empirically. It would appear to the writer that the key to Robinson's psychogenesis as an historian is simply to be found in the fact that he was and is an unusually thoughtful and intellectually inquisitive individual, and the "New History," after all, is little more than thoughtful history. The beginnings of Robinson's secession from conventional history are to be found in his genetic attitude towards the French Revolution. This took him ever backward towards the origins of humanity. As he has himself expressed it, he moved in the twenty years which followed his initial work as an instructor at the University of Pennsylvania from the guillotine back to the fist hatchet. Likewise, he was greatly influenced by the biologists and their evolutionary and genetic bent. As he came to understand better how thought and culture have gradually developed, he became more interested in the significance of the historical process, and this converted him to the view of the primary importance of the interpretation of historical materials. Robinson's undisputed primacy in the movement for the "New History" in the United States has been due to the popularity of his textbooks, his success as a teacher in one of the great graduate schools of the country, his mild and amiable persuasiveness as a propagandist of the newer attitudes, and the number, loyalty, and persistence of his followers.

Of all the important writers on the newer methods and attitudes in history, no other has so suffered from the discrepancy between his merits and his influence as Professor Teggart.¹⁰ Unquestionably the foremost writer in this country, if not in the world, on the theoretical basis of the "New History" and the most forceful exponent of the view of history as a science of social change, he remains practically unknown and without influence outside the circle of his own students. This has been due to his preference to play a lone hand, denying the significance of what others have done and refusing to associate himself actively with those who have actually borne the burden of

establishing the "New History."

Mr. F. S. Marvin is not a professional historian, but he has done more than any one else in England to arouse an interest in the "New History" and to promote its cultivation.¹¹ A strong protagonist of the reality of progress and firmly convinced of the potency of science and technology in promoting social change and human welfare, he was impressed during the World War with the disastrous nature of nationalistic discords and divisions. To offset this he founded a series of lectures and publications designed to promote world unity through a common understanding and appreciation of the co-operative and international nature of cultural progress. His own three books and the Unity Series, which he has planned and edited, have been the most notable achievements of the "New History" in England.

The first quarter of the twentieth century was the period in which the struggle for the "New History" took on significant proportions. The period of propaganda and controversy is nearing its end, and it is now necessary to plan for consistent, co-operative, and intelligent work in this field. We must honestly and courageously recognize the new obligations imposed and resolutely face the broader program which is most certainly involved.

III. A PROSPECTUS OF THE "NEW HISTORY"

It was once held that anyone who could supply himself with a quill pen and an ink-pot could be an historian if he saw fit to copy some inscriptions from monuments in a local church yard or to prepare an essay on Cleopatra to be read before a local sewing-circle. There have even been thoughtful and progressive historians in our own day who decry the effort to define and demarcate the field of history and who would rest content with urging anyone who desires to do so to jump in and do his level best in tackling whatever historical problem may intrigue him. It seems to the writer that the correctness of this position can scarcely be conceded unless one is willing to admit that every person who mixes Seidlitz powders is a physician and that all who eagerly present themselves with sharp butcher knives are to be encouraged to go out at once and practice surgery. Even the older and much simpler episodic and anecdotal political, diplomatic, and military history suffered from lack of a unified and well thought-out methodology and program of work. The "New History" will certainly be ruined unless there is a general consensus of opinion as to its program and as to the training essential to the execution of its aspirations. It will require as much agreement, unity, and co-operation as now exists in the medical, legal, or engineering professions.¹²

The program of the "New History" with regard to the scope of its interests is by definition all-inclusive. It is the recording of everything which has happened in the past. Nothing which has taken place in the past can be ruled out as non-historical in any strict or literal sense. But this does not mean either

a sloppy indifference or an inchoate anarchy. The fact that the historian of the newer type admits the historical nature of everything which has taken place in the past from the incantations of primitive shamans to the cosmetic formulæ exploited by Solomon's 731st wife, the invention of the steam-engine, and the texture of the mattresses which supported Washington's manly form during his slumbers on the way from Virginia to Massachusetts, does not mean that he is equally interested in all of these matters or believes them uniformly important. It is doubtless true that a man is likely to do good work only in a field in which he is interested. If one *must* be an historian and has an overpowering passion to investigate the evolution of naval strategy in Switzerland he should be encouraged to do so, but he should not be led to regard such an exercise as of equal importance with studies in the Industrial Revolution in England or with research into the history of contemporary technology. A common-sense attitude must prevail here. The relative significance of historical materials is to be determined in part by the nature of the period in which they fall, in part by their bearing upon contemporary life, but in any case, practically and immediately, by the purpose the writer has in mind.

The two chief tasks of the "New History" are: (1) to reconstruct as a totality the civilizations of the leading eras in the past, and (2) to trace the genesis of contemporary culture and institutions. In the first of these problems the relative importance of the diverse aspects of human culture should be determined by their significance in the age to be reconstructed. In attempting to reconstruct the civilization of the age of Pericles the criteria of the importance of events and interests should be the estimates placed upon them by the Periclean age and not those of the period of the historian. It is this fact which would make it very difficult, if not quite impossible, for a pious, dry, and unesthetic professor of history in a Middle Western college to depict with skill or sympathy the civilization of the age of Alexander or Augustus. This was the reason why the early Christian historians so distorted their accounts and estimates of pagan culture. A civilization whose philosophy was concerned with teaching people how to live happily could scarcely be appreciated and interpreted by men whose all-absorbing passion was to prepare to die safely and successfully.

On the other hand, when one is occupied with the second of the main tasks of the "New History"; namely, the tracing of the development of the characteristic traits and institutions of contemporary life, the criterion of the relative significance of the different aspects of culture must be their cogency and relevance with regard to the present age. Religion was infinitely more characteristic of the Middle Ages than science, yet with reference to contemporary civilization the history of science in the Middle Ages is more pertinent than the study of medieval religious life. If one should attempt to portray the Hellenistic civilization as a whole he would have to assign

far more space to the astrologers than to the Hellenistic astronomers, but if he is interested primarily in indicating the genesis of contemporary civilization then the work of Aristarchus and Hipparchus would have to be regarded as more significant than the work of all the astrologers in the whole of classical antiquity. If one were to give a true picture of the intellectual interests of the period of the Protestant Reformation he would need to deal far more with such issues as justification by faith than with the incidental economic views of Luther, Calvin, and other leaders. Yet, with respect to the evolution of the culture of today the Protestant defection from the Catholic economic opinions and practices was of infinitely greater moment than all of the theological issues of that age combined. To the medievalist, Roger Bacon must appear as primarily a medieval character in his interests and activities, while to the genetic historian the interesting things about Bacon are his few flashes of modernity and his incidental references to the virtues of the inductive and observational method.

It will, of course, be apparent that if one is interested in tracing the genesis of a civilization other than our own, the criterion of the importance of his materials must be their relevance with respect to the civilizations whose origins he is tracing. Thus, to one investigating the genesis of Greek civilization the importance of a special type of Egyptian data would have to be decided by its particular contribution to Hellenic culture rather than by its relative position and significance in Egyptian civilization or its importance for our own day.

These few examples will suffice to indicate that the relative importance of historical events and cultural manifestations is not monistic or absolute, but dual and perhaps even more pluralistic. Every fact of history has its relative significance with respect to: (1) its importance in the age of which it was a part; (2) its bearing upon the genesis of contemporary culture. No student of history can approach his problem with intelligence or competence without fully recognizing the reality and necessity of this differential appraisal of historical material and being thus guided by the aim he has in mind. It has been usually assumed that any historian in a single work could execute both of these tasks; namely, to recreate a civilization and to indicate its relation to the present age, but it is doubtful if this is true. The wide difference in the relative importance of the same materials, when viewed from one or the other of the two angles of interest, is likely to lead to serious distortion in one phase of the twofold achievement, if not in both of them.

Some may complain that these tests of the significance of historical material are relative and pragmatic. Is there no absolute and transcendental test? Apparently not, beyond the fact that in last analysis the value of historical material in explaining our contemporary civilization far transcends any other significance it may have.

This brief discussion of the all-inclusive scope of the vision and interests of the historical practitioner of the new school and of the twofold criterion of the relevance of historical subject-matter leads naturally to the problem of the organization of historical materials in the light of the newer concepts and attitudes. In the old days the situation was simple. The skeleton of political and military history was always present and was looked upon as wholly adequate to serve as the framework for the construction of the complete epic of humanity. The conceptions of the new history are as destructive to this primitive simplicity and guilelessness of the older history as modern astrophysics, evolutionary biology, and biblical criticism have been to the simple faith and comforting dogmas of our fathers. We must now recognize that not only is the political staging utterly inadequate for the construction of the complete edifice of history, but also that no single category of historical events or facts can serve as the basis for the organization of historical materials. There is no one key to the riddle of historical causation. At times one or another factor may rise to a position of transcendent importance, but no single "cause" or "influence" has been dominant throughout all of human history.

In a rough and tentative way it may be held that the chain of historical causation is something like the following:¹³ We have as the two relatively constant factors in history the original nature of man and the geographical environment, but these cannot be said to be absolutely static, and they are so involved with other conditioning influences that their interaction is continually varying in nature and extent. The original nature of man, reacting to a particular form of geographic stimulation, will produce a characteristic outlook upon life. This will control to a considerable degree the extent to which science and technology can emerge and develop. The state of technology will rather sharply condition the nature of the economic life which can exist in any age and area. The economic institutions tend to have a powerful conditioning, and sometimes a determining, influence over the other institutions and cultural factors: social, political, juristic, religious, ethical, educational, and literary.

Yet this is, in reality, an over-simplified statement of the historical process. Cause and effect are continually acting and interacting upon each other. A few mechanical inventions such as printing or new methods of transmitting information may so alter the life of man as completely to transform the dominating psychology of any age. Again certain psychological and cultural factors may at times have sufficient power to obstruct the obvious dictates of economic advantage and material prosperity. The skein of historical development is a tangled and complicated one. It is a profound historian who can solve the problems and the sequence of historical causation in any single epoch, to say nothing of making an effort to formulate a universally valid and applicable interpretation of human history as a whole.

Some who are alert enough to observe the collapse of the political scaffolding which once supported the

laboriously active historians will attempt to seek solace in the thought that, if we cannot use political events as the framework of historical efforts, we can at least fall back upon national entities and write the story of the evolution of French culture, Italian culture, Spanish culture, and so on, but here we shall once more have to take the joy out of life. The whole conception of national history was inseparably linked up with the political fetish and the assumption of political causation. When one looks at history from the standpoint of the evolution of culture and institutions, it at once becomes evident that there can be no such thing as national history.¹⁴ Dynastic changes, partisan politics, and diplomatic intrigues may by definition be strictly national affairs, even though they rarely are completely so in practice, but cultural and institutional development is not, never have been, and never can be a national matter. A national history of the automobile, the printing-press, or the microscope is no less unthinkable than a cultural history of France or Germany. It may be amusing to the scholar and satisfying to the historical curiosity to study the ways in which internationally derived and conditioned phases of culture are specially developed and cherished or particularly restrained and condemned within the confines of any state. Yet any national history of culture and institutions is bound to be both artificial and trivial, when compared to a study of institutional and cultural genesis as a process which knows no such thing as the artificial boundary lines drawn by dynastic ambition or economic avarice. We can continue to study the nationalistic conditioning of culture, but certainly not the nationalistic evolution of culture. National history will go down to oblivion before the "New History" no less certainly than political history, when viewed as the foundation for the organization and presentation of historical facts. A nation was once viewed as a political entity. Then Renan, Zangwill, Zimmern and others denied its political basis and described it as a cultural unity. We shall probably have to go one step further and designate a nation as a dangerous cultural illusion—a cultural psychosis or a sort of cultural dementia. For students of the problem of nationalism and of the questions of war and peace, as affected by historical writing and teaching, the above considerations have profound significance, but these are not matters into which we can enter in this paper.¹⁵

Driven from his previous havens of refuge and his vantage-points in the political framework of history and the nationalistic mode of compartmentalization, the desperate historian of the old school may at least contend that he can dig in and take his bearings within the shelter and moorings provided by the conventional historical chronology of ancient, medieval, and modern history. But the relentless expositor of the "New History" can give him even less quarter here than with respect to the theory of political causation and the nationalistic orientation.¹⁶ The anthropologists have taught us that, from the purely chronological point of view the older chronology is utterly inadequate and incredibly distorting.

The whole range of written history, comprised within the older categories of ancient, medieval and modern periods, is unbelievably modern from the standpoint of both time perspective and cultural achievement. Ancient history would, in reality, be the period of the culture of the Eolithic and Paleolithic ages; medieval history would probably best correspond to the culture of the Neolithic; modern history would run from the beginning of the age of metals, at least three thousand years before Christ, to the scientific and industrial revolutions since the middle of the eighteenth century; contemporary history would have to be invoked as a term adequate to describe the novel civilization which has arisen in the train of the scientific and industrial transformations of recent times.

But the cultural and institutional critique of the older chronology is far more devastating than that which may be derived from the new time perspective of human development. The older chronology was erected upon the notion that it was possible to block off large and distinct stages of human progress. This rested upon a considerable number of assumptions, all of them erroneous. The original basis for these divisions was almost purely chronological, a matter of dates rather than of culture. The chronological divisions related to matters of secondary historical importance. A battle was a battle, and the only difference between a battle fought in 561 B. C. and one fought in 827 A. D. was that the first was fought in 561 B. C. and the latter in 827 A. D. When the conventional chronology was utilized by the cultural historian it had to be assumed by implication that there existed a real gulf between the civilization of 324 A. D. and that of 326 A. D. or between that of 1452 and 1454 A. D. It was also necessary to assume that the whole cultural complex is a homogeneous entity, that Greek ethics are as ancient as Greek technology, that modern ethics are as modern as modern technology, and that all phases of culture evolve simultaneously and harmoniously. The older chronology was also based upon the obviously preposterous hypothesis of the essential synchronism and uniformity of culture the world over—assuming by implication that in 500 B. C. the world was enjoying an ancient pagan culture throughout; that in 1300 it was everywhere medieval in character; while in 1850 it had become essentially modern in all areas.

Now it can be shown that a chronology based simply upon a sequence of dating years is of no vital significance whatever. The continuity of history proves the futility of any sharp division between eras. It is, moreover, a truism of theoretical anthropology and cultural history that the various elements in the cultural complex have a highly differential rate of development, as well as that the aesthetic aspects of culture seem to obey no demonstrable laws of evolution or progress.¹⁷ If we mean by modernity social adequacy and scientific validity, then the ethics of the Greeks are far more modern than those of John S. Sumner or Calvin Coolidge. The artistic life of the Renaissance was, likewise, far richer and more expansive than that of today. It is obvious,

then, that there can be no scientific type of chronology which is based upon the hypothesis of the uniformity of the rate of the development of all types of culture and institutions. Further, the rate of cultural evolution varies greatly as between the different parts of the earth. Imagine trying to describe under the caption of "ancient civilization" the cultures of China, Scandinavia, South America, Gaul, Mesopotamia, and India in 1000 B. C., or under the heading of "contemporary civilization" the cultures of China, England, Germany, Russia, and Brazil in 1890 A. D.! It would seem that the only type of chronology which can possess any validity whatever must be a highly specialized one, based upon, and descriptive of nothing more than, the development of certain limited phases of culture or certain specific institutions within a relatively homogeneous cultural area. The conventional historian may retort that he might as well have no chronology at all. He would be almost right!¹⁸

We cannot conclude this discussion of the scope and program of the "New History" without a consideration of the relative importance of its two chief tasks: (1) a reconstruction of the civilizations of the past;¹⁹ and (2) a consideration of how the present order has come about. Of these it must be conceded that the latter is incomparably more important than the former. Indeed, the reconstruction of the civilizations of the past has little importance except in so far as the facts thus discovered help us better to explain the genesis of contemporary civilization. It may, of course, be of interest and amusement to try and see how far we can make the age of Pericles or the court of Justinian live again. Yet, such exercises, by and of themselves alone, must be viewed as on the level of sophisticated historical cross-word puzzles, or perhaps, better, historical cross-section puzzles. There is little practical reason for investigating how the Greeks lived unless this research will throw indispensable light upon how we have come to live as we do at the present moment. Therefore, from any serious and pragmatic standpoint the reconstruction of the civilizations of the past is vitally important only in so far as it promotes a better understanding of the civilization of today, and is to be justified only in so far as it contributes to this end. To be sure, if any one gets more personal enjoyment out of research and speculation as to the mode of life of the ancient Hittites than from most other forms of recreation, he should most certainly be tolerated in this diversion, but he should be taught to regard it as in much the same class as metaphysical speculation, smoking, golf, and bridge-playing. Of course, if this individual should study Hittite civilization for the purpose of discovering the remote background of the present prosperity of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, in the Hittite origins of the iron industry, his researches would have another and higher order of justification.

Therefore, those who have believed that the sole and final objective of the "New History" is to produce a majestic history of all civilizations in all times have a very imperfect and incomplete vision of the fundamental purpose of dynamic and synthetic his-

tory. The *History of Civilization* Series, planned and directed by Professor C. K. Ogden as a great extension of Berr's *Evolution of Humanity* Series, is by far the most advanced and significant historical undertaking which has been launched since Herodotus recounted how God came to the rescue of the Athenians, but it does not represent the final goal of historical endeavor. It must be supplemented by, and turned to the service of, an even more impressive series of volumes which would trace back to their origins such things as the blast-furnace, the printing-press, private property, the concept of chastity, the place of the classics in pedagogical theory and technique, the protective tariff, party government, the automobile, radio-activity, psychoanalysis, the theory of democracy, the factory-system, the monogamous family, trial by jury, surgical anaesthesia, international exchange, modern improved highways, harvesting machinery, prohibition, and the myriad other devices, institutions and practices which go to make up what we designate as life at the outset of the second quarter of the twentieth century. Such a series, it would seem to the writer, constitutes the ultimate goal of thoughtful and pragmatically useful history much more than to learn what Cicero ate for dinner on the evening previous to the launching of his invective against Cataline. The writer would offer no objection whatever to the effort to portray with accuracy and absorbing vividness the mode of life of our ancestors; he would merely insist that those thus occupied realize that what they are doing is, by itself alone, more after the fashion of amusement and entertainment on a high level than vitally important intellectual efforts.

In emphasizing this primary importance of the genetic analysis of the origins of contemporary society, we touch upon the only real lesson which history has for mankind. It must be obvious to all thoughtful persons that the social and cultural situations in the past were so different from those of the twentieth century that we can draw little of value for ourselves from the experiences of remote historic ages. Yet, by tracing back to their beginnings our own culture and institutions we cannot only better understand our own age but can also destroy that reverential and credulous attitude towards the past which is the chief obstacle to social and intellectual progress and the most dangerous menace to humanity.

It might incidentally be pointed out in passing that if history should come to be chiefly occupied with tracing the genesis of contemporary culture and institutions many of the problems mentioned above in connection with the general organization of historical material, the conflicting theories of historical causation, and the complicated issues of historical chronology would automatically disappear, for the problem in each case would be the origins and development of a single institution or cultural manifestation, though its history may be involved with that of related aspects of culture. One would not have to deal with stages of civilization as a whole or with general problems of historical causation.

Some may wonder why nothing has been said concerning history as a science of social change, the position so well expounded and defended by Professor Teggart. This, it would appear to the writer, is the legitimate field of historical sociology rather than of history, though he would not quarrel with those who would bring it within the scope of the "New History."²⁰ If one desires to look upon the determination of the laws and processes of social causation as the final stage in historical science and the basic objective of the historian, then it is obvious that the two tasks of the newer history which have been described above: (1) the reconstruction of past civilizations and (2) the tracing of the genesis of contemporary civilization would have direct and immediate value in supplying illuminating material to be worked over and reflected upon by the student of social causation or the science of social change.

IV. THE DESIRABLE TRAINING FOR THE "NEW HISTORY"

If the "New History" is to be a success, it will be conceded without argument that it must train an ever larger group of enthusiastic workers in this field in such a fashion as to render them capable of carrying on competent research and synthesis. If the older history suffered because of the inadequate training of its devotees, such would be much more the case with the "New History" which requires a far wider range of preparatory studies.²¹ It may, of course, be conceded that a unique genius might be able to execute commendable work of this type with no extensive training, but we are not here concerned with genius. Though it may be difficult for them to succeed here, the "New History," like the old, will have to depend to a large extent for its recruits upon earnest and devoted plodders who will need to be strengthened, sustained and guided by thorough and accurate training in their craftsmanship.

It must here be insisted that the "New History" is essentially a science and not an art of cultural reconstruction and institutional genesis. It may be freely conceded that the distinguished historians of the new school will be those who add to their scientific precision and wide erudition creative ability in that type of artistry essential to the skillful reconstruction of civilizations and the astute tracing of the genesis of ideas and institutions. This is as evident as that the great diagnostician in medicine is something above and beyond a competent technical scientist, but he could not be a diagnostician of great repute without having first been a competent student of medicine. Least of all should literary artistry be confused with historical prowess. The clever essayist, as such, is no more an historian than a painter who produces a chromatic masterpiece designed to reproduce the likeness of St. Peter or Charles I. Van Dyke is as much entitled to rank as an historian as is Carlyle. Hogarth was as truly an historian as Macaulay.

A recent committee of this Association has contended that the chief reason for the lack of influence exerted by history upon public life and opinion is the absence of stylistic distinction on the part of recent

writers. It would appear to the present writer that the real reason has been the esoteric, lifeless, irrelevant and supine character of the content of too much of recent historical writing. If anything has discredited recent historical writing it has been the handicaps imposed upon it by archaic conceptions of the nature, scope, and purpose of historical writing, by pedantic exhibitionism, by the choice of obscure topics, by Rotarian notions of good taste, and by the exploitation of historical writing for the purpose of promoting academic advancement and professional friendships instead of the cause of illuminating humanity and advancing human welfare. Even a Sombart or a Veblen will have his host of eager readers if there is anything to constitute an ultimate reward for the painful perusal of his pages. There is no doubt of the value or need of good writing, but it should be good writing by good historians; in other words, good historical writing in the best sense of that phrase.

In particular, we must protest against the theory of the uniqueness and the mysterious nature of historical events and situations. The so-called drama of history is nothing but the record of the responses of a particular bio-chemical entity to terrestrial stimulation. Human responses are no more mysterious or unique than the behavior of other animals or the reactions of organic tissue and inorganic substances as studied in the laboratory. The deliberations of the National Constituent Assembly in the French Revolution were as much a purely naturalistic product as the gambols of the simians in Bronx Park. An historical situation is no more unique than a particular biological demonstration upon a guinea-pig, though it may indeed be a much more complicated affair. Further, it cannot be too much emphasized that such aspects of an historical situation as are unique are those which are essentially irrelevant. Historical phenomena can be understood only to the degree that they are brought within the scope of the cogent type of scientific analysis as supplied by the relevant natural and social sciences.

Nor can one hope to prepare for the task of the historian merely through antiquarian research or by the acquisition of a vast body of conventional historical facts. The person who gathers and edits a vast number of inscriptions is no more an historian, however valuable his services may be to learning and to history, than is the person who collects and classifies antique furniture for a museum of the fine arts. And the person who has committed to memory the last edition of Ploetz's *Manual of Universal History* is by this fact alone no more qualified as an historian than a person who has mastered an Ayer's *Almanac* of the vintage of 1870 would be to function intelligently as an interne in Bellevue Hospital in New York City.

The basis of all training in the "New History" will remain the conventional instruction in the technique of documentary research. It will be as necessary as ever for the beginning historian to be thoroughly grounded in the principles of research in documents, inscriptions, and monuments. Indeed, the

training here will need to be more extensive than ever. In ancient history today the student not only has to be familiar with the collections of inscriptions, but must also be a master of prehistoric archeology and papyrology, neither of which disturbed the serenity of Curtius or Mommsen. In modern history there is need for a much wider technical knowledge than was ever required for research in medieval documents. The embryonic medievalist, once he had mastered his Latin, Greek, and Arabic and the auxiliary sciences essential to documentary criticism, was ready to go ahead when provided with a glossary of theological terms and his Du Cange to guide him in regard to medieval usages. The student who would do research in contemporary history must face an infinitely greater range of requirements. He must be familiar with bookkeeping and accountancy, the rudiments of technology, the elements of corporation finance, the terminology of contemporary political science, the fundamentals of transportation, and a host of other manifestations of contemporary civilization if he is to be able to read with any intelligence the documentary sources which contain the raw materials of his profession. An historian of contemporary times who does not know the difference between a lathe and a carburetor, a dynamo and a turbine, the benzo-ring and a solitaire, and a soviet and a Bolshevik would be wholly incompetent to pursue his craft.

Next to this basic technique of documentary research would come the acquisition of the truly historical outlook, which is to be found in a thoroughgoing acquisition of the evolutionary or genetic point of view. The historian should be as completely conditioned to think in terms of genesis and development as the physician is to deal in terms of diagnosis and prognosis. He should be a master of the basic conceptions and processes of cosmic, biological, cultural, and institutional evolution, and should accustom himself to think always of man in terms of the nomenclature and processes of evolution. Evolution should be to the historian what dynamics are to the physicist. In other words, we should insist that the person who intends to be an historian should at the outset be historically minded.

Then the historian must master the fundamental facts and principles of anthropogeography, as interpreted by the most up-to-date exponents of regional geography, whose viewpoint is that of the cultural anthropologists. A book such as Lucien Febvre's *Geographical Introduction to History* will illustrate what is meant here. The historian should, in particular, master the physical and social geography of the area in which he expects to be a specialist. The practitioner of the "New History" must recognize at the outset that what has hitherto passed as historical geography; namely, a familiarity with changing political boundaries and battle-sites, useful as such knowledge may be, is not in any sense the geography of history. He should also be accustomed to thinking in terms of the three great stages of the geographic conditioning of history, such as outlined by Léon Metchnikoff; namely, the fluvial, thalassic, and

the oceanic. He must also be familiar with the great historical significance of that world-wide contact of cultures, so effectively described by Professor Shepherd in studying the historical significance of the expansion of Europe.

The student of the "New History" must also be thoroughly familiar with man and his behavior, normal and abnormal. He must have mastered the rudiments of physiological chemistry and endocrinology. No person unfamiliar with the glandular basis of human behavior can hope to interpret intelligently the conduct of man, past or present. One must be as familiar with the action of the adrenal glands as with Potthast or Bernheim. It is probable that adrenalin played as large a part as pan-Slavism in Sazonov's decision upon war in July, 1914. Likewise, the intelligent and properly equipped historian must be familiar with the more common types of abnormal behavior associated with the major varieties of human pathology. Statesmen, diplomats, and supreme courts judges have usually been men of advanced age, and certainly no one could hope to understand the conduct of the aged unless acquainted with the behavior patterns associated with arterio-sclerosis and senile-dementia. Chronic nephritis is often more illuminating in explaining a person's behavior than his politics, education, religion, or economic investments. An understanding of the behavior patterns associated with the major psychoses and epilepsy is likewise indispensable.

Human behavior cannot be understood when sharply separated from that of other animals, particularly that of our fellow simians. Hence the necessity for full acquaintance with comparative psychology. A book like Yerkes' *Almost Human*, the best and most reliable popular exposition of simian psychology, is indispensable to anyone who would attempt a realistic interpretation of human behavior, and the beginner blessed with an adequate sense of humor should supplement this with Clarence Day's *This Simian World*. The real fact that man is only a little higher than the apes is of much greater significance to the understanding historian than the dubious assurance that he is only a little lower than the angels. Behavioristic psychology, with its stress upon social conditioning, is all-important to the historian who desires to interpret a personality in relation to his early life and social surroundings. And this must be supplemented by psychoanalytical psychology, which throws a flood of light upon unconscious motivation of conduct and insists upon an investigation and knowledge of the intimate facts of personal history and daily life if one is to learn the secret springs of human behavior in the case of any individual. Finally, there must be an adequate acquaintance with the facts of social psychology to make clear the effect of crowd psychological situations upon man and to indicate the multifarious interactions of the group and the individual.

Anthropology must be cultivated, not only for its emphasis upon the evolutionary basis of man and his institutions, and for its clarification of the new time perspective of human development, but even more for

its elucidation of the laws and processes of cultural development. There is more to be learned about the fundamental principles of historical development from such books as Ogburn's *Social Change*, Wissler's *Man and Culture*, and Kroeber's *Anthropology* than from the dozen best books yet written on formal historical method. More than any of the other new auxiliary sciences, anthropology is veritably the threshold to history, from the standpoint of both chronology and methodology.

No one can engage competently in the "New History" who is not thoroughly familiar with sociology, the basic and elemental social science, introductory to all others, as well as with the special social sciences of economics, political science, jurisprudence, ethics, etc. History is a record of man's development as conditioned by his social environment. Hence, it is quite impossible to interpret this record intelligently without a scientific knowledge of the facts and processes of group life as explained by sociology and the special social sciences. Further, if one expects to execute a type of work which calls for more than average knowledge of some special social science, this latter must be thoroughly mastered. For example, no one should think of attempting detailed work in economic history who is not thoroughly trained in every leading branch of modern economics and in economic statistics. If one hopes to write in the field of the history of science or aesthetics, he must add to the social sciences a specialized familiarity with the natural sciences or the fine arts.

Many who might admit the validity of the above ambitious and exacting program of preparation for the "New History" will contend that it is simply impossible for any single individual to meet such requirements. Such an objection appears to the writer to be specious and inaccurate. It will be easy enough to achieve such a preparation once its necessity is understood to the same degree that the requisite special preparation for medicine and engineering is now fully recognized and admitted. We have already our pre-medical courses in the colleges, and our professional medical courses which follow. In due time we shall have our pre-history courses and our professional schools of history and the social sciences where the above educational program can be fully realized. It will require no more time than is now so largely wasted through unplanned and unco-ordinated efforts in our colleges and universities. All of the requirements for the successful student of the "New History" could be easily met in the seven years now exhausted by our conventional history major in securing the A.B. and Ph.D. degrees. We should then have something when we get through with the preparatory process beyond what President Little of the University of Michigan has designated as the pedantic and narrow-minded specialist who knows more than any other living person about the suspenders of Henry VIII and does not care to know about anything else.

Some might cantankerously contend that few if any of the present expositors of the "New History" can meet the test just laid down in regard to the

desirable preparation of the historian. The indictment would be correct. No doubt Professor Robinson would be the first to admit that he is but an amiable and humble novice with respect to almost every phase of the preparation of the student of the "New History" which we have sketched, but he might also retort that if he had his life to live over again he would be adequately prepared. And he could further contend with justice that the character of what he has been able to accomplish with inadequate preparation is the very best proof of the revolutionary results we may expect from the thoroughly trained students of the future.²²

¹I have argued this position at length in my *New History and the Social Studies*.

²The theoretical basis of this position is well stated by Professor Teggart in his *Prolegomena to History; The Processes of History; and The Theory of History*. I have endeavored to summarize the leading aspects of the progress of the "new history" in my chapter in E. C. Hayes, *Recent Developments in the Social Sciences*.

³See *The New History and the Social Studies*, passim; and A. C. Krey, *Report on History and the Other Social Studies in the Schools*. The programs of the American Historical Association can scarcely be taken as an accurate reflection of the interests or wishes of the majority of the American historians at the present time.

⁴Cf. E. Fueter, *L'Histoire de l'Histoire Moderne*; pp. 708-15; G. P. Gooch, *History and Historians in the Nineteenth Century*, pp. 353-8; 373-94; W. A. Dunning, "A Century of American Historiography," in *Annual Report of the American Historical Association*, 1917; Barnes, in Hayes, op. cit.

⁵Cf. James Harvey Robinson, in *Harper's Magazine*, August, 1926, pp. 267-8; and F. J. Teggart, *The Theory of History*.

⁶Cf. J. H. Robinson, *History of Western Europe* (new edition), Chaps. XXXVIII-XL; A. C. Flick, *Modern World History*, Part IX.

⁷The quest for the hand of God in history has not entirely disappeared. See the work of the president-elect of the American Historical Association, Henry Osborn Taylor, *The Freedom of the Mind in History*.

⁸See on this point the highly illuminating articles by James Harvey Robinson in *Harper's Magazine* for August and September, 1926.

⁹On Robinson see my *New History and the Social Studies*, pp. 204ff.; and my chapter on him in H. W. Odum, *American Masters of Social Science*.

¹⁰The best statement of Teggart's theoretical views is contained in his *Theory of History*; cf. my comments in the *New York Nation*, September 8, 1926, pp. 223-4.

¹¹Marvin's two most characteristic works are his *Living Past and The Century of Hope*.

¹²Cf. *The New History and the Social Studies*, passim.

¹³I have endeavored to interpret the history of Western Society according to this theory of causation in Book I of Volume I of Davis and Barnes (Eds.) *An Introduction to Sociology*; cf. A. H. Hansen, "The Technological Interpretation of History," in *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, November, 1921.

¹⁴Cf. W. K. Wallace, *The Trend of History*, and *The Passing of Politics*; F. S. Marvin, *The Century of Hope*, and (Ed.) *Science and Civilization*; Flick, op. cit., Part IX; H. G. Wells, *The Outline of History*.

¹⁵Cf. J. F. Scott, *The Menace of Nationalism in Education*; C. J. H. Hayes, *Essays in Nationalism*; and my *History and Social Intelligence*, Part II.

¹⁶For an illustration of the impossibility of harmonizing the new history and the old chronology see A. R. Cowan, *A Guide to World History*. For discussions of the nature of the newer chronology see my treatment of the subject in E. C. Hayes, *Recent Developments in the Social Sciences*, and in Davis and Barnes, op. cit., Vol. I, Book I.

¹⁷Cf. Clark Wissler, *Man and Culture*; and M. M. Willey, in Davis and Barnes, op. cit., Vol. I, Book V.

¹⁸See the references in footnote 16.

¹⁹Professor Fling would restrict the scope of history entirely to the first of these two tasks.

²⁰Cf. *The New History and the Social Studies*, Chap. V.

²¹Cf. F. Schevill, *A History of Europe*, pp. 2-4; *The New History and the Social Studies*, passim.

²²For surveys of the sciences auxiliary to the new history see H. E. Barnes (Ed.), *The History and Prospects of the Social Sciences*; E. C. Hayes (Ed.), *Recent Developments in the Social Sciences*; W. F. Ogburn and A. A. Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences*; H. W. Odum (Ed.), *Masters of Social Science*; C. E. Merriam and H. E. Barnes (Eds.), *A History of Political Theories: Recent Times*; G. E. G. Catlin, *The Science and Method of Politics*; Columbia University lectures by Boas, Crampton, Wheeler, Robinson, Seager, Beard, Smith, Giddings, Woodworth and Dewey on the social sciences, published individually by the Columbia University Press, 1908.

A Criticism of Some Recent Trends in the Field of the Social Studies

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The educationally benevolent have given lavishly of their suggestions for organizing and teaching the social sciences since the World War. Persons of all grades of training and intelligence have explained how to Americanize whoever needs Americanizing and to make good citizens of our youth by this method and that. State, county, and city school superintendents have solemnly given of their wisdom to the problem—democratize the students in our schools. Teachers in schools and colleges have written their articles and had them printed in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, or elsewhere, on such subjects as "Current Events in the Junior High School," "Current

Events in the High School," "Current Events as an Approach to Historical Knowledge," "Methods of Teaching Current Events," "The Use of the Notebook in the Teaching of Current Events," "Training for Citizenship," "The Current Events Lesson," "Making History Real," "The Socialized Recitation," "Vitalizing History Teaching," "Quantity-Quality Grading," "A Chrono-Topical System of Note Taking," "An Aspect of History Testing," "The Twelfth Grade Course in Problems of Democracy," "Current History in the High School," "Making Capital of Interest in History Classes," "Adding Vitality to Civics Instruction," "Project Method of Teaching

History," "Practice Tests in the Social Sciences," "Experimental Curriculum Making in the Social Studies," "Written Examinations and Their Improvement," "New Tests for Old," "New Types of History Tests," "New Kinds of Tests in Social Science," "Improving the Teaching of History Through the Use of Tests," "The New Civics," "The Sneer Method in the Teaching of History," "Citizenship Courses in the Senior High School," "Builders of Citizenship," "The New Civic Education," "Education for Citizenship," "Experiments in Community Civics," "A New Method in Civic Education," and on *ad infinitum*. A university introduced its course in "Contemporary Civilization" in 1919 and other institutions tried to copy this with varying degrees of success or failure. Professors of education have been saying, "Educate for life," "Teach what the students can use," "Do away with teaching about the dead past," "The social sciences should have as their great educational objective the inculcation in our youth of the principles of sound citizenship." The "Current-Eventers," aided and abetted by the monthly and weekly magazine business offices, have given with prodigal liberality toward the making of social science study interesting and easy for teacher and student.

One of the surprising things in the whole business is the lack of criticism and analysis of what is offered, and the seeming acceptance of anything that means change, movement, or a new term as successful and progressive. At the risk of being considered critical and obstructive, the writer is willing to assert that being caught in the sweep of the *zeitgeist* is not being directed by the god of wisdom. It is not his purpose to assert that progress can be made without change, but he does assert that change is not necessarily evidence of progress. It may be only movement, and movement may be regressive as well as progressive. In the midst of the multitude of guides trying to lead social science teachers out of the wilderness, care needs to be exercised lest the teaching of the social studies become more and more superficial, current-eventized, interesting and exciting at times, but having no more destination than some persons whom one may offer a ride on the California highways, and who say in reply, "No, thank you, sir; I ain't goin' nowhere."

The writer of this article is not one of the "old-timers" frequently referred to as "moss-backs," who are tolerated in institutions because of their long years of service, and who are afraid of progress partly because it may leave them high and dry on a barren shore. In his academic career as a student, he came under the tutelage of great men of both the "old schools" and the "new school" of history. He shares the viewpoint of the "new history." He even subscribes to what he is able to understand of the general viewpoint to be found somewhere in the profundity of Harry Elmer Barnes. In the past twelve years the writer has taught in high school, junior college, a great state university, a great state college of four thousand students, and in the institution where

he now assists in the selective and training process of providing teachers for our schools. It is his opinion, based on a relatively short but a varied experience that, in spite of current events from the grammar school in some cases on through the high school, things in general in the ninth grade, anything at all in the twelfth, a little history between the ninth and the twelfth, contemporary civilization or things in general in the freshman or sophomore year in college, our young people as a rule know little of the "old history" or the "new history" at the end, and possess little understanding not only of how the present came to be but of what it now is.

About a year after the close of the World War the writer received a communication from a scholar in the neighborhood of New York. A committee was being formed to consider a revision of the social science courses in the secondary schools. The writer had been suggested as a western representative on this committee. A brief letter controversy resulted because the time for such revision seemed inopportune to the party in the west. He had seen the man who taught him the laws of evidence in history throw these away as he followed the herd in the war. He had witnessed enough in his efforts to serve his country in its crisis of war to make him sure a revision at the time suggested would be an effort to satisfy the clamor of the crowd, rather than an effort to lead youth in quest of the truth. He so stated. His point of view was met with courteous and strong dissent.

Strictly speaking, revision did not take place. Certainly there has been no formal revision; things have not gone that far yet. But there have been changes; there have been trends. Some of the changes and trends have been good, but some have been of questionable value. One notes a rather persistent critical attitude toward the study of early history with a tendency to supplant this by community civics, problems in democracy, and citizenship courses, whatever these are. It is urged that if history is to be studied, it should be recent, or at least the great emphasis should be on the "present age." Many urge that in the twelfth year students should be trained to go out to take their places as active intelligent citizens and dynamic social beings. To prepare them for the great service of life, it has been suggested that instead of economics, civics, and history, they should be given some sort of a fusion course, with history, economics, geography, sociology, government, biology, and citizenship all fused together into something to live by and with. Others think the course ought to be a study in problems of democracy. This latter may be and often is anything the teachers choose to make it, or have to make it, for they have to give a course whether they have any course to give or not. Some of these twelfth-year courses are our high school variety courses.

The writer believes almost any subject to be beneficial to youth when it is taught by someone with adequate preparation in the subject, and who knows how to teach. He is doubtful if anyone can be adequately prepared to teach some of the courses now given in

some of our high schools. He does not think the difference in value between subjects to be as great as many persons think these are. He does not think, however, that a semester or a year spent in "things in general" is as profitable intellectually and practically as the same length of time spent in the careful study of some subject whose limits and bounds can be marked out with enough of definiteness to make it possible to have a common understanding of what is meant by the subject. He is unable to see the great relative value of studying the present to the exclusion of the past. He does not see why time given to the untrustworthy and changing reports of things of the passing day has transcendent importance in comparison with time spent in considering phases of past developments that can be studied in the light of reliable evidence and receive interpretation from the standpoint of today. A teacher who does not know considerable about the past out of which the present has come is not prepared to teach with much profit about the present. And a teacher who cannot humanize and vitalize the past and make clear the relation of past and present is not well fitted for his task. The writer thinks a great blunder is being made by many school administrators in their careless assumption that persons unprepared in the social sciences can teach them, and in the substitution of generalization courses on "the art of living," "problems in democracy," or whatever these may be called, in place of history, government, and economics.

Our colleges and universities have also been more or less the victims of the delusion that the teaching of things in general is particularly educative. The war and post-war psychology forced into institutions of higher learning citizenship, civic education, and other courses of a similar nature that have had their day and should cease to be. It would have greatly embarrassed legislators and school administrators to have been called upon to prepare and give some of the courses they have imposed upon faculties. Perhaps this is an error—maybe it would not have embarrassed them. Maybe they would have prepared and given some of the courses now being given and have felt proud of their handiwork. We know precious little about what constitutes a good citizen, and we know less about education to make one. Besides, it is doubtful if formal teaching on the subject of citizenship does much toward making citizens of the right kind. Why not give to solid teaching and study of history, psychology, sociology, government, and economics the time now being consumed by courses in civic education, civic review, and superficial rehashing of current subjects that have no metes and bounds?

As I am writing these lines a letter comes into my hands from a professor in an institution of four thousand students. He thinks it possible he might wish at some future time to return to his native state and teach in junior college, where he would need a general secondary credential. He has been qualifying himself for this credential by taking certain courses necessary for his purpose in summer schools. Last

summer he took "California School Law," "Constitution of the United States," and "Education for Citizenship." Here is what he says: "The course in California School Law,' given by _____ of _____, and 'Constitution of the United States,' by _____ of _____, were good. 'Education for Citizenship,' by _____ of _____, was the poorest thing I have had to stand for a long time." My own thought, as I read his lines, is that thus it is likely to be when school administrators are caught by the sound of words.

If one will look over college catalogues of the past six or seven years, he will find many institutions of higher learning listing courses in "Contemporary Civilization," or in something of similar sound but just as vague. Required courses in "Education for Citizenship" are as a rule bad enough, but what must be thought of courses in "Contemporary Civilization?" A course under this title was introduced in Columbia University in 1919. Several departments collaborated in manufacturing the course, which is still being given under the original title. Many other institutions introduced courses under the same or similar titles. Many of these are a rehash or an adaptation of what is given at Columbia, but they are given under different conditions. Here is what has taken place: Along after the war somebody used the words "Contemporary Civilization," and they sounded intriguing. "That's it," chorused confused educators. "'Contemporary Civilization,' that is what our youth ought to be taught." Just what a course under such a title should comprehend no one had any definite idea, as will soon appear, if one looks into the fifty-seven varieties plus being given in as many institutions. But whatever the subject might be, it was introduced. It became a two or three-unit, one-semester course in numbers of teachers' colleges; in some cases required, and an established course in numerous liberal arts colleges.

That Columbia University continues to require "Contemporary Civilization" of all freshmen is evidence that those giving it consider it worth while. This is understandable when one examines the syllabus used and finds it is given five days a week for two semesters, with four or more departments of the university co-operating in handling the fields of study introduced. It will be seen that what is outlined can serve under the circumstances as an introduction to several of the social sciences. Just why the course should be called "Contemporary Civilization" is difficult for some of us to understand, but they probably understand it at Columbia University, for they see through a great many things there that are hidden to others.

When a course of this kind is set up to be given two or three days a week for one semester by some faculty member teaching in addition in several fields, the unsatisfactory nature of the arrangement ought to be apparent to any trained person. There is no agreement as to what it should cover and but vague ideas of what it should do. A well-trained man came to an institution where such a course was required.

He discovered to his consternation that he was programmed to teach it. He tried to find out from the administration what it was supposed to be and do, but he only found out that no one there knew. He was sure he did not. As it was a required course in the institution, he resigned rather than stultify himself by attempting to do what he did not feel he could do with intellectual peace or with profit for his students. Another instructor faced a similar situation, but went ahead with a sense of intellectual humiliation, which he declared was not relieved because numbers of students told him they liked the course better than any other they were taking. He knew students might like things of questionable value.

It is encouraging to learn that so-called courses in "Contemporary Civilization" are becoming in numbers of places definitely history, or philosophy, or sociology, or some other social science, or they are being abandoned. In some cases there is a grouping of several subjects under the title with no attempt to give "Contemporary Civilization" as such. The absurdity of supposing that an apparently successful experiment at one place under special conditions would be a success generally ought to have been apparent at the outset, but the people who support so handsomely the "health, happiness, and prosperity" psychologists ought to have the privilege of assuming that any widely heralded course or method declared to be new is a universal solvent of educational problems.

It would appear as if we are recovering a measure of balance in our attitude toward the types of courses referred to in the above observations. It is to be hoped we may do likewise in time toward what are commonly referred to as the "new tests." Just why the terms "new tests" should be applied to "true and false," "completion," and other simple methods of checking on students' work and acquisition is a little difficult to see, inasmuch as many teachers have made some use of these time-savers for many years. But at any rate they came to be designated as "new tests" within recent years, and "new tests" they must be.

Various forms of short objective examinations have been widely used in the past few years. Some instructors use them only occasionally. Others base the grading of their students almost wholly on the results secured by them. From some of the articles and chapters of books written about them, they are another of the great hopes in education. It was interesting to note that several years ago almost an entire issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK was given over to their advocacy for the social sciences by writers who for the most part seemed to think a new saving method in social science teaching was being heralded. There is no reason for criticizing the publication of so much on the subject, but it does seem strange that so much affirmation found no voice against it.

In my own practice, the students who have graded high or low by other methods have as a rule graded high or low by the "new tests." But there have been

exceptions of such a striking kind that I have not been willing to rely too much on the "new" methods. My feeling as to their weakness has been strengthened by the fact that an analysis of almost any of these examinations will show that a person may answer many of the questions asked or that can be asked by the method with almost no understanding of the subject. On the other hand, there can be failure on many questions along with considerable knowledge of the field studied. The criticism being offered here is not a wholesale condemnation of the method, but it is a protest against the assumptions of some writers concerning it. It is to say that we have not settled the whole question of handling some subject when we have labeled as "new" some old thing valuable in its limited place.

One other phase of teaching in the field of the social sciences appears to the writer to be yielding results far below those claimed by its proponents. Some of its results are even pernicious. Reference is here made to the emphasis being given in some quarters to the teaching of "Current Events." Some give courses in current events, some take a period or two a week for their discussion, others rehash them every day in every way.

The criticism here is not directed against current events in themselves. It is against their discussion and study being made the *stadium* and the social science course, whatever it might be, the *college*, that is, current events study becomes the big show and end of the whole business. Those who want this have a right to the arrangement, but there is a serious question as to the effects of the proceeding on the growing mind, just as there is a question today of the effects educationally of the present commercialization and professionalization of college athletics. A nationally known scholar and a fine teacher whom the writer knows visited a class in sociology, one in history, and one in economics in a certain prominent high school. He told me that he could not tell one from the other and that each was a superficial rehash of current events. He added that in his judgment the discussion of current happenings was fast becoming a refuge for weak teachers of history.

Certainly students should be taught to interest themselves in current affairs. The teacher of history, geography, civics, economics, etc., if he is a capable teacher and fit for his work, will vitalize and humanize his subject. He will relate what he is teaching to the life of today. But he will do this while he is leading his students to appreciate the continuity and solidarity of history, to see things in their proper perspective, to grasp and apply economic principles, and to avoid superficial judgments through the process of giving them thorough grounding in those fields of knowledge upon which such results in social science teaching depend.

Nearly all formal teaching of current events which the writer knows about is superficial and cheap. It is almost bound to be from the very nature of the case. The material with which the teachers and pupils deal is too much unrelated, too illy digested,

and too little understood by teacher and taught to be of certain value. The events of today have little meaning or the meaning given to them is false when they are discussed, as they too often are, by untrained teachers, with slight or no idea of the great historical processes of which the happenings of today are the expression or of which they form a part. When the discussion of current events comes naturally in presentation of history, economics, government, etc., under the guidance of teachers trained in the fields they are teaching, a great service is rendered to youth. But when current events are presented for current events' sake by untrained teachers, or as an easy way of creating the expression of opinion by ignorant students, as is often the case, the procedure is not alone of doubtful value, it is positively harmful.

The great business of teachers in the social studies is to teach the youth of the land to know some things, to avoid superficial judgments, to see how slowly man moves into larger life, and to have some understanding of the play of forces in the universal story of humanity. They are to help the student to build an intellectual background for his better understanding of present-day problems. They are to give positive direction to those mental and moral qualities of youth which, when rightly developed, constitute the basis for intelligent and sound citizenship. Teachers of the social sciences are to help "free the mind from the trammels of time and place"; they are "to produce open-mindedness"; they are to induce "patient inquiry for the purpose of disclosing the facts of a given situation before passing judgment"; they are to give "some grasp upon the methods of investigation and the tests of accuracy"; they are to develop that form of judgment which acts intelligently in the growing world with the "shifting and conditional relations of men in society." Teachers who are fitted to do these things by natural endowment and by grasp of their subjects due to thorough training will do them by teaching the social studies with their bearing upon the life that now is and not by making current events the main business, with the social studies a side issue.

The present time is the day of opportunity for teachers of history and related social sciences. That opportunity is sacrificed when studies in current events are substituted for the studies which are basal for an understanding of the present day. With a great social experiment going on in a country with the potentialities of Russia; with nationalism developing in the rich land of China, with its teeming millions of people and with anti-foreign feeling growing with rapidity; with conflicts touching the questions of religion, and oil in Mexico leading to propaganda for United States' intervention in the internal affairs of a sister republic; with the United States rich and growing richer while European states become more and more critical of us, what a time it is for the teacher to teach the history of Russia, the story of the opening up of the Far East by the peoples of the West, the political and religious history of Mexico, and the social, political, and industrial history of the United States. As Professor James Harvey Robinson

says: "It is most essential that we should understand our own time; we can only do so through history, and it is the obvious duty of the historian to meet this, his chief obligation." If we would explain the Great War and post-war developments and make the minds of our coming citizens ready for a new world, this will have to be accomplished by the study of many factors in the evolution of peoples and states during the span of even hundreds of years. In the face of great opportunities such as face us with our task, it is blundering of the worst kind to spend day after day in such trivial discussions as are often held over the ever-changing events of the passing days.

The foregoing observations and criticisms are not a protest against progress but against superficiality. They are not meant to decry anything because it is new. They are intended to condemn methods and subjects which came largely out of war and post-war states of mind. Unprepared teachers in the social sciences, school administrators untrained in the social sciences but little beyond what should be given in the grammar school, and political persons who get on school boards of state and city, all of whom are often caught by words such as "contemporary," "current," "education for citizenship," and the like, are the responsible parties for a considerable measure of the superficiality, misinformation, or lack of information of large numbers of our youth who, at large expense, have received from the social science teaching of our schools but little more than they could have received in store, shop, or poolroom discussions of current happenings. As Professor Malin has well said in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for January, 1927: "A student cannot arrive at any real understanding of civics, economics, or sociology without a knowledge of Modern European and American history as a background. Contemporary problems are not local or national, they are world problems, and they have their roots in the past. It would seem trite to make such a statement in this connection if it were not for the fact that quite a number of men who enjoy a statewide reputation as educators, and who hold positions of influence, insist that it is not necessary for a student or a teacher in the high schools to know history. To them pedagogy and social science in the narrower sense are everything."

The difficulty in getting our history and other social science positions manned and womanned by trained teachers is one of the most serious problems in the situation. Many history and social science teachers are well trained for their work. These are doing as fine work as is being done in any field. There are many others who could qualify as trained teachers in commercial subjects, home economics, agriculture, Latin, English, etc., who are teaching history and related subjects. There are other untrained persons in prominent positions in the social sciences who have been placed where they are because of superficial experiments of one kind or another which struck the fancy of school administrators who never had training in these fields. This is what takes place in far too many cases: Students who have been taught

history by persons untrained in the field come to college complaining that they were taught history as if it were a string of wars and dates. The person teaching the history had probably studied little history, but he or she had to teach it. In trying to do this, the unhappy person had to have something to hang to, and wars, dates, etc., were the visible hooks. These incoming college students may or may not take a history course in college, they may or may not study political science or economics. They spend four years studying English, home economics, science, or agriculture. Then they go out well qualified to teach some things, but they secure a position where they teach something and history, for it is assumed that anyone can teach history, government, and economics. Then their students go to college and are trained in somewhat the same way. They go out to teach the social sciences, and the vicious circle is continued. What can be done about it is difficult to say, since too many members of university departments of education and school administrators, who are untrained in history and related subjects, do not see the seriousness of the situation.

With good nature, but with more of seriousness than he dares to indicate, the writer suggests a five-year program, which he believes would do more in the end to promote intelligent citizenship than anything he has seen proposed for years. Plank number one: For a period of five years, all junior high school principals, high school principals, school superintend-

ents, city, county, and state, together with certain members of university departments of education, and all persons who have to do with employing, assigning, and supervising teachers of the social sciences, shall be required to attend summer schools for the purpose of studying history, sociology, economics, and government. Plank number two: Since such a large percentage of teachers in the social sciences have had but little training in the subjects they are called upon to teach, but have majored in other lines, the certification regulations of states shall for five years require "a form of certification of teachers which will insure prepared teachers in the social science group" by providing "that high school certificates shall be granted only on completion of a major and minor in an accredited college and that such certificate shall be valid only for the subjects named in the certificate," and shall provide a means by which the regulation shall be enforced. Plank number three: For the specified period of five years, we shall take a rest from the fevered writing and publishing in historical and social science journals of all articles on the methods of teaching and testing in the social studies, and will refuse during that time to use the terms "method," "contemporary," "history assignment," "socialized recitation," "education for citizenship," "real," "current," "current events," and "new" (unless it is). If this program goes into effect, a *new* day in the social studies will dawn before the five years shall have passed.

The Correlation of Language and Social Studies in Intermediate Grades

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A peculiarly helpful relationship exists between language and the social studies in intermediate grades. This relationship is found in the opportunity for both oral and written expression offered, first, by the socialized recitation in geography, history, and civics; second, by the wide variety of live topics for both oral and written English which constantly present themselves in social science recitations. An examination of the objectives of language teaching shows the basis of this relationship. Clearness and fluency in oral and written expression are generally accepted as the chief objectives of language teaching. Mahoney¹ states as the aim of his course in English for elementary schools:

1. To graduate pupils able to talk or recite for a few minutes in an interesting way, using clean-cut sentences and good enunciation.
2. To graduate pupils able to write an interesting paragraph of clean-cut sentences, unmarked by misspelled words and by common grammatical errors.

In order to achieve these objectives, clearness and fluency, it is essential that the pupil see some pur-

pose in talking or writing. He will not see this purpose unless his subject is one upon which he has something to say and which he feels is worth while. Such a subject will be closely related to the pupil's experience, narrow in scope and capable of definite treatment. To provide subjects which answer these requirements is one of the greatest problems of the language teacher. Many language lessons accomplish little, due to the fact that the pupils are trying to talk or write on topics too broad in scope or too difficult to organize because of the imaginative details involved. Topics which depend largely upon the imagination for development work havoc in the language habits of intermediate grade children. Lack of definite knowledge upon the subject results in a loose organization in which "and" and "then" become prominent factors. For this reason it seems best to confine oral and written language work in these grades largely to *factual* subjects, which are narrow in scope and well within the range of the pupil's knowledge and interest. Such factual subjects may be had in abundance. The social studies as presented in the socialized recitation offer a field

rich in factual material which possesses all the characteristics of good language subjects.

Oral language is particularly well served by the social studies. The constant practice in talking clearly, briefly, and to the point, which is necessary to the socialized recitation, affords splendid training in oral expression. The very nature of the socialized recitation provides many of those factors essential to good oral English. A summary of these factors in the socialized recitation shows its value in teaching children to talk well.

LANGUAGE VALUES OF THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

First, a socialized recitation is a real audience situation of "pupil talking" and "audience listening." The pupil is presenting points which he thinks are important to an understanding of the problem upon which the class is working. Often, he is presenting points from reference material which no one else in the class has had an opportunity to use. He feels that what he has to say is needed in the solution of the problem.

Second, the subject is alive to the pupil because he is working on a problem which he has helped to state and whose worth he appreciates. For instance, a class, in studying our trade relations with Europe, find that we import annually over thirty million dollars' worth of cotton cloth from England. Their previous study of cotton has shown them that England imports most of her raw cotton from the United States. They at once raise the problem, "Why can England who produces no raw cotton sell manufactured cotton to the United States at a profit?" There is no doubt about such a problem being alive to the pupils.

Third, in the socialized recitation there is a constant urge to organize. The pupil must give points bearing on the problem, not irrelevant material. Furthermore, a pupil, reporting points which others do not have, feels responsible for giving this material in such a way that all may understand and remember it. The necessity for presenting his points in concise, clear-cut sentences, and for making his report logical and complete, is real to the pupil who knows that he will be questioned by the class until he has made himself clear. Indeed, the class soon recognizes the importance of organization in getting a piece of work done, and are quick to offer suggestions for a better organization. In a friendly spirit and out of a genuine desire to help, a pupil may say, "I think I can make that point clearer," and offer his organization for the consideration of the class. An attitude of intolerance for carelessly organized work becomes manifest in such a class. Such criticisms as "I think John ought not to take the time of the class with that material until he has it in better shape," or, "Wouldn't it be better for John to do more work on this point and report tomorrow," are heard. Nowhere else does the importance of organization become more apparent to the pupil than in the project which is often a part of a socialized recitation. This project may be the making of paper, the making of hominy, the building of a flatboat, the

dyeing of cloth, or any other concrete activity which helps in understanding the problem. Exactness and sequence in giving directions become necessary if the class is to be directed in constructing something by a pupil who has mastered the method. One step must follow another in logical order in building a miniature section of paved road as the first paved roads of the Turnpike Era were built.

Fourth, the friendly "give and take" of class discussion in the socialized recitation helps to eliminate self-consciousness. The fact that the questions asked by the class spring from a real desire to know, together with the fact that he has definite knowledge upon a subject of interest to all, give the child confidence. The whole attitude of trying to accomplish a job with the least possible waste of time, which characterizes the successful socialized recitation, tends to eliminate self-consciousness.

Fifth, the value of concrete illustrations and concrete details in making a point clear to others is realized by the child. He soon learns, for instance, that statistics reported in millions of dollars make little impression on the class, that he must reduce his numbers to fractions or per cent. or to "times as much" if they are to be remembered.

Sixth, the importance of making the explanatory or demonstration talks with which he illustrates his work clear, definite, and pointed is felt by the child. He learns to begin the explanation of a graph or chart with a statement of the point he is making from the chart. He learns that it is better to say, "This graph of our exports of raw materials to Canada in 1919 shows that coal is by far our most important export to Canada," than it is to say, as is so often done, "Here is a graph of our exports of raw materials to Canada in 1919." He learns to demonstrate carefully, step by step, how results were obtained in individual experiments.

Seventh, the pupil's real interest in making his fellow pupils hear, aids in improving mechanics, such as enunciation and voice inflection. Moreover, the class who insist on being made to hear bring a much greater pressure to bear upon the child who mumbles than the teacher possibly can. Again, the child takes the trouble to look up the pronunciation of proper names when he alone is responsible for a report.

TYPES OF SOCIAL PROBLEM TOPICS

The factors just summarized as encouraging good English in the socialized recitation in social science are found in the recitation in oral language when the talks are upon topics growing out of the study of social problems. These topics are of two general types. In the first place, many points of interest to the children, but too numerous to handle as a part of the study of the problem, arise during the socialized recitation in geography, history, or civics. These form the basis for talks in the oral English period. A topic of this type is usually suggested in somewhat the following fashion: A class studying our imports of hides and skins from Latin-America finds that hides are listed as "dry" and as "green or pickled."

The question as to just what is meant by these terms is at once raised, and a member of the class volunteers to find out and report in the next oral English period. Such a report has the same incentives to good oral expression as the reports of the socialized recitation.

The second type of topic growing out of the study of social problems has to do with the projects which help to make these problems concrete. Talks based on projects are by far the most valuable type of oral language work, not only for intermediate grades, but for primary grades. A child who has helped to carry a project to completion step by step has little trouble in securing clearness and unity in a talk explaining how the project was carried out. To cite an example: A fifth-grade child in telling the children of other grades, during an assembly program, how the fifth grade made paper, explains the steps in the process of making paper one after the other. Having taken a hand in making the paper, he sees no other way of describing the process than in its natural sequence. The organization of the talk presents no difficulties. The child does not flounder through a mass of imaginative details; he knows exactly what he wants to say next. Therefore, the loose "and" and "then" are less apt to creep into his talk. The child uses a far more extensive vocabulary in explaining how paper is made than he would in telling a story or in giving an original description. He has broadened his vocabulary through wide reading on the subject and often through meeting new terms in handling the materials of the project. On the whole, talks based on projects seem possessed of a magic which smooths out the difficulties in the paths of young speakers.

EXAMPLES OF TOPICS

These two general types of topics from the social sciences furnish plenty of material to keep everybody busy. Indeed, it is an exceptional recitation in which several subjects, about which the class feels the need of further knowledge, do not arise. A few illustrations of such subjects follow. These are merely random samples and by no means represent all the topics carried over to the oral language period during the study of problems under the units cited.

Geography of Europe. Grade 6.

Types of imported cotton cloth found in your city's stores.

The Jacquard Loom.

How sole leather is tanned.

Geography of Clothing. Grade 4.

How we washed and carded wool.

How we spun this wool into thread.

History of Recreational Activities. Grade 6.

Games played in Old England on Robin Hood's Day.

The beginnings of football.

Geography of Forest Industries and Products. Grade 5.

How a chair is made in [Iowa City's] chair factory.

The maple sugar I made.

History of Agriculture. Grade 5.

How we made a rag doll tester.

Geography of Fuel and Power. Grade 5.

Current prices of coal [in Iowa City].

How We Are Fed. Grade 4.

Some by-products of corn that will surprise you.

History of Transportation. Grade 4.

How I built this flatboat.

The need of milestones and guide-posts in colonial days.

Tavern signs.

Pack horse transportation:

1. Kinds of products brought to market by pack horses.
2. The products for which these were exchanged.
3. The journey of a pack horse caravan from the back woods to the settlement.

The Conestoga Wagon:

1. Description of Conestoga wagon and horses.
2. The teamsters, how they traveled.
3. Customs of the road.
4. The Conestoga wagon in time of war.

Geography, History, and Civics of the Fishing Industry. Grade 4.

The following talks were given in a single oral language period:

1. Our visit to a professional fisherman.
2. Kind of fish found in the Iowa river.
3. Fish and game laws which fishermen in Johnson county must observe.
4. Labels on fish foods.
5. The world's fish foods.
6. Eat more fish.
7. By-products of the fishing industry.
8. Hardships suffered by fishermen.
9. Methods of fishing and good sportsmanship in fishing.
10. Books on the fishing industry.

In addition to individual talks, reports on which the whole class collaborate, grow out of social study recitations. Excursions such as "Our visit to a lumber-yard" and "How gloves are made in Iowa City's glove factory," are reported in this manner. However, the most valuable exercise of this kind, from the standpoint of oral language training, is the report of a problem or project for an assembly period. In the University Elementary School an assembly of the first six grades is held every Friday morning. Each grade in turn takes charge of an assembly and presents some regular classroom activity which they think will interest the other grades. In presenting such a program a grade is confronted with a very difficult audience situation, that of holding the interest of an audience ranging from beginners to sixth graders. A stenographic report of an assembly program given by the sixth grade of the University Elementary School is included below to illustrate the care exercised in meeting this situation.

The subject presented was Iowa City's Water Supply. The talks were not memorized and were given without notes. They were prepared in the regular language period. The class first outlined the topics needed to present their findings in regard to Iowa City's water supply. Members who wished to talk on each topic were then heard and the one who best presented the topic was chosen to talk before the assembly. Those preparing talks were given the aid of constructive criticism by the class, who set up the following criteria for judging a pupil's efforts:

1. Did he know his material?
2. Was his talk clear at every point?
3. Did he make good use of objects and illustrative materials.
4. Was his talk complete?

Drawings and graphs on a scale large enough so that the audience could easily see them, as well as objects and apparatus, were used to make the talk concrete.

STENOGRAPHIC REPORT OF AN ASSEMBLY GIVEN BY THE SIXTH GRADE OF THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Allaire:

How many of you know how much you weigh? Louise, how much do you weigh? Sixty-two pounds. About 41 pounds of that is water. Eloise, how much do you weigh? Eighty-six pounds. About 57 pounds of that is water. Since so much of your body is water, you must take a great deal to live. You get water, not only by drinking it, but also through food. Look at this potato. Notice the part that is not peeled. When you eat a potato about this much of what you eat is water. Look at this turnip. See the part that is not peeled? This much of the turnip is water. Look at this apple. Notice the part that is not peeled. This much of the apple is water. Look at this loaf of bread. When you eat a loaf of bread this much of what you eat is water. But you can't get all the water you need through food. You must drink at least six glasses of water a day. One glass should be taken when you get up in the morning. Now, since so much of the body is water and since so much water is taken into the body every day, is it not important that you should have pure water? Your mothers have been boiling your drinking water the last few days. Last week there was a big fire down town. The firemen did not have enough water to put the fire out, and the man at the water works had to let the water in from the river without purifying it. For this reason the city health officer has warned us to boil our drinking water for a few days. Mother would find it a great deal of trouble to boil all the water we use. It must be purified in another way. We are going to show you how Iowa City's water is made pure so that you do not have to boil it every day.

Louise:

The water most of you drink comes from the Iowa River. If you should take a big pail and dip up a pail of water from the Iowa River you would find sticks and leaves and mud. Besides these there would be little living things which you could not see—bacteria and disease germs which cause typhoid, malaria and other diseases. Disease germs get into the water in several ways. When it rains the water drains over barnyards and from outhouses into the river. Cesspools and sewers drain into the river, and many people throw waste and refuse into it. When we take a drop of river water on our finger it looks clean, but if we put it under the microscope we find bacteria in it. This shows that water which looks clean is not always pure. Sarah is going to show you what happens when the water supply is not pure.

Sarah:

This chart shows what happens when the city water

supply is not pure. This shows the death rate from typhoid fever in 1912 in different cities in the United States. Each square represents one death for each 100,000 people. That means that the longer the line is, the more died in that city, so that in Cleveland only six people died to every twenty-two in Baltimore. This shows that Cleveland had a lot purer water supply than Baltimore. This second chart shows the effect of purifying the water supply of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The first two lines show the death rate in 1906-1907, when people got their water from reservoirs. In 1908 the city built a filtering plant. Look at the decrease in deaths. In 1906, 141 died to every six in 1912, so it paid Pittsburgh to purify its water.

Harriet:

Down in the bottom of the river there is a hollow box made of stone. In this there are a lot of little holes that the water can get into, but not sticks and stones. This box is called a crib. The water is pumped from the crib by a centrifugal pump. This pump works the same way as when you are riding a bicycle, the mud flies from the wheel up your back, only the water cannot fly out of this wheel, and so it is forced up this pipe into the lime tank.

Wilfred:

The water is forced up this pipe into the lime tank, where lime is added to make the water settle. The lime is poured from this box, through this funnel, down in the water, where the lime and water are mixed by revolving paddles. After the water and lime have been thoroughly mixed, the water is sent on to the settling tank, where a lot of the dirt settles to the bottom. We put some dirty water in this glass and let it settle and most of the mud and dirt went to the bottom. When I shake it up again it looks like this. The settling tank works on the same principle.

Calvin:

The water runs from the settling basins to the filters. Here it filters down through five feet of sand and gravel and the dirt is strained out. This is a diagram of a filter. This is the sand and this is the gravel. The dirty water comes in here and after it passes through this sand and gravel it is clear, and runs through this pipe. The filters are cleaned three times a day. When they clean the filters they shut off the supply of water from the settling tank and force compressed air up through the sand and gravel. When it comes bubbling up, the water looks just like dark-brown ink. This takes the dirt out of the sand and gravel. Then they open this pipe again and let in more water from the settling tank.

This is the filter we made. We first took some screen wire like mother uses in the summer to keep the flies out. We tacked a layer across the middle of the bucket. Next, we put in a layer of gravel about two inches thick and then two inches of sand. Our filter did not work very well, because we could not get the screen tacked tightly enough around the edge. The sand sifted down with the clean water. We put in dirty water and when it came out it was cleaner, except that it had sand in it.

Lawson:

After the water comes out of the filter it is clear, but not pure. It has bacteria in it, and things held in solution. Water takes anything that it can hold in solution. We performed this experiment. First, we mixed some sugar with water to make a solution. Then we added some dirt and filtered it through this filter paper. When the water came out it was clear, but it was sweet. This shows that filtering water does not take out bacteria and things held in solution. To kill these bacteria they use chlorine (17 parts of chlorine to a million parts of water), which is a very powerful disinfectant. Chlorine is made at Niagara Falls. It is made in the form of a gas, then it is changed into liquid under high pressure. When it comes here they put it in the water to make it pure. The water is now ready to be pumped over Iowa City.

Sam:

The water is pure now, but how is it gotten to the homes in Iowa City? Most of the houses in Iowa City are higher than the water works, so the water has to be pumped. Pressure is made either by pumps or a standpipe. The

standpipe is a simple reservoir. The weight of the water in the standpipe makes pressure which causes the water to rise in the pipes; the higher the standpipe, the more pressure. In this experiment we put potassium permanganate in the water to color it so that you could see it. This little dial shows pressure. This tank is like a reservoir. When it is put up real high the water rises in the pipes very fast. When I push this tank down, the water falls in the pipes. The lower the standpipe the less pressure there is, and the water runs down in the pipes. The pressure can be made by pumps or by standpipes. In Iowa City it is done by pumps, but in lots of towns it is done by standpipes. This week we are going to study about how the water in wells and cisterns is purified, because so many of the people in this school live in the country and depend upon wells and cisterns for their water supply.

Written English no less than oral English is supplied by the social studies with a wealth of material for written work. This material is of three types: summaries, reports for the use of future classes, and letters.

SUMMARIES OF PROBLEMS

The written summary of a problem may be developed in several ways. First, the points to be contained in the summary as stated by the class at the close of the socialized recitation may be combined into a written paragraph by one child who is appointed to this task by the group. This summary is later read and criticized by the class. Second, each child may combine the points of a summary into a paragraph to be read in class. The best treatment of each point of the summary is chosen from various papers and a child is appointed to reorganize these into a class summary. Third, after the points to be contained in the summary have been decided by the class, each child may write the summary in his notebook. Fourth, occasionally the recitation may be closed without an oral summary and each child may be asked to write an original summary of important points. The summaries written by sixth-grade pupils, which follow, are of the last type and are copied without correction. They are representative of the work of the class; others of equal merit might have been selected:

EFFECT OF THE OLYMPIAN GAMES UPON THE LIVES OF THE GREEKS

(History of Recreational Activities)

The Olympian Games influenced the lives of the Greek people in such a way as to build up a great nation. The games made the Greeks physically strong as a race, because they encouraged athletic training and a respect for physical perfection. They also strengthened the Greeks morally, for no man was allowed to be a contestant who had committed a sin against the State or any of the Gods. They encouraged sportsmanship, because the contestants had to swear to be fair in the games, and strengthened patriotism, because only men of the Hellenic race could take part in the games. Bringing people together from all parts of Greece broadened the minds of the people. Here poets read their works, sculptors showed their arts and scientists exhibited their inventions. Trade increased, because people brought goods from all over Greece to sell.

UNITED STATES EXPORTS TO EUROPE

(Geography of Europe)

The United States exports more to Europe than to any other Grand division. South America ranks second, but we send twice as much to Europe as to South America. Most of our exports to Europe are sent to the north-western part. Italy is the only country out of this region

which ranks high. Our total exports to Europe in 1921 were $3\frac{1}{2}$ billion dollars. The classes of these exports ranked are:

1. Manufactures ready for consumption.
2. Crude materials for use in manufacture.
3. Foodstuffs in crude condition and food animals.
4. Foodstuffs manufactured.

Most of our exports are manufactured goods, such as iron and steel, leather, zinc, copper, tobacco, and naval stores. A great change has taken place in the character of our exports since 1850. In 1850, 17.1 per cent. of our exports were manufactured products; in 1916, 62.1 per cent. were manufactured products. This shows that we have become an industrial nation.

Reports of projects for the use of future classes contain (1) a record of the materials used in the project, (2) where these materials were obtained, (3) the steps in carrying out the project, (4) things to look out for (that in dipping candles paraffin may explode if too much water is added), and (5) the result obtained.

So many letters need to be written to secure the information, illustrative material, and bulletins demanded by the social studies that the child need never write that uninteresting thing—a letter which is not to be sent. He may write to the Chamber of Commerce of Galveston, Texas, for information in regard to the current prices of cotton; to the Chamber of Commerce of Seattle, Washington, for material on Alaska; to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, for bulletins on the trade of the United States with the world, Part I—Imports, Part II—Exports; to the Becket paper mills, at Hamilton, Ohio, for information in regard to kinds of paper; to hundreds of manufacturing concerns for industrial exhibits. The knowledge that his letter will be mailed, the real purpose back of his writing, and the delight he feels in receiving mail addressed to himself, furnish strong incentives to careful work. The replies which are received by the children are studied as models of proper business address. In writing for publications and materials which are not free the pupil learns to send money properly by mail. Many children become so interested that they write letters at home, quite on their own initiative, securing industrial exhibits and similar materials. Indeed, the teachers find it necessary to guard against abusing the courtesy of industrial concerns.

A language program for intermediate grades in which factual material is made the basis for oral and written work will, in the judgment of the writer, far more nearly achieve the objectives set up for language teaching than a program in which the usual type of subject is made the basis for oral and written work. It is much easier for the child either to talk or write on "How We Made Soap" than on "A Week-end Vacation" or "What Frightened Me." This does not mean that original description and narration have no place in the English program. Their importance is obvious, but since facility in expression is achieved more easily through the use of factual subjects, original description and narration should be postponed until the child can handle the concrete subject adequately. As a matter of fact, skill in treating concrete material is easily transferred to the treat-

ment of imaginative material. The following description of a storm comes from the same group who produced the compositions of a highly concrete nature previously quoted. The first draft was written in ink and is copied without correction:

THE STORM

A startling thunder clap followed the blinding flash of lightning, and then the storm came. It came with a roar and sheets of rain. The rains soon filled the gutters and the thunder and lightning played tag across the sky. It rained in open windows and doors, drenching everybody and everything within its reach.

Fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, in which four twenty-minute language periods a week, two oral and two written, were devoted to composition based on concrete subjects of the types illustrated in this article, were able to make average scores from two to four grades advanced on standard language tests. Individual scores of twelfth-grade ability were made by sixth-grade pupils. No formal grammar was taught in these grades, but one twenty-minute period a week was devoted to dictation exercises, language games, and drills, which corrected common errors of speech and taught the mechanics of writing. Constructive criticisms only were tolerated when the class was judging a pupil's work.

So far in this discussion of the relation of language and the social sciences, the point of view has been the benefit resulting to language through a close correlation with the social sciences. The benefit resulting to the social sciences through such a correlation is equally important. Even if we disregard the significant service which language renders to all subjects in the curriculum, that of teaching the children to avoid common errors of speech, teaching knowledge

of punctuation, sentence sense, etc., a very real aid to the efficiency of the social science program is given through a correlation with language. The language work aids the social sciences in the following ways:

1. The talks of the language period are a valuable means of clinching important facts bearing on the problem. Assembly programs, reports of excursions, and reports of projects are especially helpful.
2. The knowledge that the social science problem upon which he is working may be utilized in an assembly program or other language activity furnishes the pupil with an incentive for putting forth his best efforts.
3. The opportunity to round out problems and catch up loose ends by means of topics carried over to the language period strengthens the pupil's grasp of a problem and stimulates his interest in it.
4. Topics carried over to the language period lessen the danger of losing sight of the main issues of the problem through interest in minor issues.
5. The transfer of social science topics to the language period saves the time of the socialized recitation so that main points may be given proper emphasis.

It might be pointed out in closing that in addition to the material advantages attained through such a correlation of language and the social studies as has been suggested in this article, certain attitudes are secured whose value is unquestioned. Perhaps the most important of these is the attitude of being not only willing but eager to talk or write.

¹ Mahoney, John J., *Standards in English*. (World Book Co., 1920.)

My History Notebook

BY WALTER B. SPELMAN, A. B., OF J. STERLING MORTON HIGH SCHOOL, CICERO, ILL.

On a quiet summer evening, shortly after dinner, as I was glancing over my bookcases for something to read, I saw the covers of my notebook in American history. I had found the "something." It was not an old edition, either, a few years, more or less; so, in looking at the list of contents, I, a teacher now, recalled the history of my history notebook—the start, the contents, and my own efforts; and I subjected it to the hard test of experience: was it worth while? What good did it do me?

On the first day of the school term, Miss Merritt, our teacher, had explained what a notebook was and how she wanted it kept. It was to be not merely a "study" notebook for lesson assignments, nor an "informal one of odds and ends" and various jottings, but a real notebook with loose leaves and fly-covers of standard size, one of quality as well as usefulness. Presently Miss Merritt handed me a mimeographed sheet with instructions for my work: the tracing, lettering, and coloring of maps; the making of outlines with main and sub-topics; the

writing of long and short themes in clear, correct English; the employment of neatness and accuracy; and the two warnings: "Use ink"; and "Be prompt in your work."

Some of the required contents were outlines—and I didn't know outlines. Consequently, a day or two later she and we of the class outlined a part of the textbook on the board; and still later she gave us four or five main topics which she told us to develop; and, finally, after an interval of two or three weeks she gave us the subject only and had us make the outlines. I had kept the records of those steps. By that time I began to grasp the method and managed very well with my first collateral reading in Fiske, *Discovery of America*.

Before I could start my collection of material I prepared a page for the table of contents and several pages for lesson assignments—thank goodness for those, for I did know what to do each day. Then I filed my instructions and my notes on early explorations. It seemed like a long time in getting started,

but I had very little trouble the rest of the year; perhaps it paid to go slowly at first.

As I turned the pages I thought, "My, how I must have studied and read and worried to accomplish all these things!"

Occasionally, too, I could feel anew that peculiar, never-to-be-forgotten thrill of satisfaction that comes with the accomplishment of a particularly difficult task—my outline of the tariff, my term paper on "A Child of the South." Scarcely one had I forgotten of the various kinds of work; and of the following it was difficult to decide which, if any, could have been omitted, or which was more important than the others:—

Outline	References	Chart
Summary	Table	Diagram
Theme (short)	Dates	Sketch
Theme (term)	Statistics	Graph
Extract from Source- Book	Chronology	Clipping
Review Questions	Lecture Notes	

Miss Merritt said that a little practice in lecture note-taking would help me later in college. She was right.

As I reached the last page I noticed the number of the page—125. That was a rather bulky volume for a high school senior; but I turned back to the table of contents and counted the number of distinct exercises—sixty. The work was not very heavy as it meant less than two exercises per week, and usually one was an outline or a summary of the requisite supplementary reading. It seemed to me that Miss Merritt had steered a sensible course between a voluminous notebook and the minimum essentials that are demanded by the state board⁴ or for college entrance requirements. Furthermore, she had helped materially with several outline maps, and three mimeographed outlines of topics. I think that I might have used less outlining on the whole because it did sometimes become monotonous.⁵

I wondered, too, if the time spent on getting some of that material together and copying it so carefully in my notebook could not have been better used in other history work. Once I studied and wrote for more than two weeks on the "Industrial Revolution"; since then I have read a story of the development of steam that was as fascinating as any novel.⁶ Once I outlined the affairs of "Bloody Kansas"; since then I have read the *Battle Ground* by Ellen Glasgow. Possibly Miss Merritt did not know about those books; but wouldn't it have been more economical in the use of time, and, indeed, more interesting to me, if I had read two complete books on the subjects rather than fifty-odd pages with the accompanying note-taking and rewriting for the notebook? I will not say that the latter task was drudgery; perhaps I really "got" the ideas; but it occasionally became burdensome.

Did I copy those notes from the book? No. I followed my instructions and read the subject-matter through first; then I selected my notes, wrote them in my own words, and filed them in my notebook.

I didn't think that was copying or cheating, especially as I always gave the author credit in foot-notes or in bibliography. By using that system I believed I really grasped history knowledge.

I tried for a few moments to judge my notebook from this other point of view, to realize some of its advantages. "What were its functions? Were they carried out?" I could honestly state certain results, true in my case, true for the members of my class, and even for pupils in general.

As I surveyed the whole notebook, I, almost unconsciously, surveyed the history of my country—the seven main topics, the five colored maps—they gave me this *overview*. I had a definitely clear comprehension; my thoughts had been crystallized.⁷

I viewed my rough sketch of the "Half-Moon," and instantly the Dutch colonization flashed into my mind. Certainly a deeply-grooved impression had been made by my reading and illustrating and filing away the story of Hudson. It might have been called memorizing by repetition; I knew it still.

Along toward the middle of the book I had a moderately long theme with this title, "Economic Cotton." I made a trip to the Field Museum in Chicago to get that information; I had taken notes; I had made a rough draft; I wrote the paper, illustrating it with several sketches; and I placed it in its proper niche in the notebook. I believe firmly that the *doing* of cotton had made that phase of the Civil War stand forth even more vividly than Gettysburg itself. Motor activity pays rich dividends.

Farther on was my legal brief in defense of a Southern planter of Maryland who abandoned his state in 1862. The selection of material, its classification, and precise organization were verily wrought out of my blood. Yes, I have visited the South since I placed that in my notebook, and now I am glad it is there.

Once I saw an "N" in red ink. I smiled as I recollected the feeling of shame for being "not neat," and I turned several pages to see if I had improved—and I had and Miss Merritt knew that I had. I am still rather desirous of a neat, orderly piece of work. Transfer of generalized habits—? perhaps.

When Miss Merritt wrote that "N," was she teaching history or English? It has struck my fancy that my whole notebook was a regular English laboratory, wherein I practiced what Woolley's "Handbook" of English composition had preached. If Miss Merritt had publicly advised the union of history and English by arguing for an English laboratory, she could readily be listed as a 1922 instructor.

I came to another term paper with its exact foot-notes and precise bibliography. For once I had been a historian; and, while I have not since, I believe I am a bit more radical in doubting a statement or in admitting its truth than the fellow who never filed *historical evidence* in his notebook.

Again I reached the last page and the grade in red—"A." Well, it was pretty good. I wondered why she had given me such a mark, when suddenly it flashed into my mind that she hadn't given me the

mark for the book alone. She had employed a method called the "quiz scheme." She made a list of ten or twelve topics several times during the year; we selected two by lot; then we, using our notebooks, wrote carefully on these topics. I really had a use for my notebook; I did not keep it for exhibition purposes only. Sometimes, too, we exchanged our notebooks with each other, a process which was interesting and broadening, for we could see what the others were doing and so compare our respective abilities.

Time has flown—three hours spent in reviewing that notebook. I closed it and put it back on the shelf with a feeling of pardonable pride in my work and a realization that I did have "tied up in a bundle" a definite knowledge of the development of my own country.

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- ³ Although fictitious, this is a deserved name.
- ⁴ Leffler, *op. cit.*, p. 16.
- ⁵ Gold, H. H., "Methods and Content of Courses in History in the High Schools of the United States," *School Review*, XXV (1917), p. 282.
- ⁶ *Yale Chronicle Series*, 1921.
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Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION

W. G. KIMMEL, *Chairman*

The Professional Preparation of Teachers of the Social Science in the Secondary School (M. A. Thesis, Colorado State Teachers' College, 1925. Copies on file in the Colorado State Teachers' College Library, Greeley), by W. C. Jones, presents much material on the courses offered by universities, colleges, and teacher-training institutions. The purpose of the study is to:

- "(1) Determine the job of the secondary school social science teacher as related to aims, content, methods, psychology, and tests and measurements;
- (2) Determine the present status of the professional preparation of the secondary school social teacher;
- (3) Make recommendations for the professional preparation of the social science teacher in the secondary school."

The author made an analysis of 54 books, articles, committee reports, and courses of study in order to ascertain the theoretical aims of the teaching of the social studies; a survey of the content of the most widely used textbooks in the social studies; an analysis of the works of psychologists with respect to the teaching of the social studies; a survey of the practices in the field of tests and measurements; an analysis of methods found in 23 courses of study; and an analysis of 128 catalogs of universities and teacher-training institutions in order to ascertain the courses offered in professional and content fields.

Space permits only the mention of the findings of the latter part of the investigation. The 128 institutions offer 1,917 courses in education, 392 of which deal with method. Most of the courses are offered for principals and superintendents, with little attention to the needs of the teachers. Less than two-thirds of the institutions offer courses in the teaching of history, less than one-eighth offer courses in the teaching of civics, and only one institution offers a course in the teaching of economics. Departments of

history, in the content field, offer 1,089 courses, 270 of which deal with American History—an average of 2.1 courses per institution. The average of all courses in history is 8 per institution. Departments of sociology offer 201 courses; less than two-thirds of the departments offer courses in labor problems; less than one-fourth provide courses dealing with family, and less than one-tenth offer courses in rural sociology. Less than two-thirds of the institutions offer courses in government. All institutions offer at least one course in economics; less than one-fifth of the 128 institutions offer courses in economic history, while only one offers a course in principles of taxation. Less than one-fourth of the institutions offers a course in industrial geography, while only about one-eighth of the total number offers a course in world geography.

Although the press has always wielded a tremendous influence in the development of public opinion, the study of newspapers seems never to have found a definite place in the curriculum of the schools. Romaine L. Heim, in her study, *The Place of the Newspaper in the Study of the Social Sciences* (M. A. Thesis, University of Southern California, 1926), has presented much usable material.

"This study undertakes to suggest ways in which the use of the newspaper and of newspaper methods in the teaching of the social sciences may provide a connecting link between the various social science subjects and the student by locating the subject-matter which will most engage the interest of the pupil of secondary school age, and by showing the intimate inter-relation of the ideas of the various social science subjects in their every-day application."

More specially, the study includes: (1) a review of the social sciences with respect to aims, trends, and

objectives; (2) arguments for the need of vitalizing the subject; (3) an evaluation of the newspaper for use in classrooms; (4) a statement of the relationships between the social sciences and the newspapers; and (5) methods of using the newspaper in the teaching of the social sciences.

The part of the study of most interest to teachers is the presentation of methods of using the newspaper. Data from a questionnaire submitted to high school teachers in Los Angeles, supplemented by methods reported in periodical literature, form the content of the presentation. Some methods used are: surveys of newspapers, collection of news items and filing them for later use in courses of study, use of news items by committees of pupils in current events classes, word or concept study, aids in discriminating reading through testing the accuracy of facts presented, correlation between subjects, current events clubs, case studies of news items of current economic and social problems, research and written reports, bulletin boards and uses for purposes of display of news items, notebooks and scrapbooks, debates, uses of cartoons, projects, and history composition.

The review of the development of modern tendencies presents a complete account, and the sources are used freely. Constant citations from authorities add to the value of the study. A bibliography of almost one hundred titles is appended.

T. Virgil Truman, in *The Reduplication of Material in the Social Science Courses* (M. A. Theses, University of Southern California, 1926. Copies on file in the University of Southern California Library, Los Angeles), has dealt with a vital problem in the teaching of the social studies. Justification for repetition of materials in several subsequent courses is based, according to the author, on the following reasons: (1) the lack of differentiated subject-matter for the different grades; (2) the subject-matter is not arranged according to school grades as in other subjects; (3) many pupils remain in school only as long as the law requires, and these must be given as much knowledge of facts as possible in the earlier grades; (4) pupils retain little of what they learn in the grades unless the same materials are repeated in high school courses.

Scores made by 21 pupils in Grade VIII and by 24 pupils in Grade XI on 4 of the Stormzand's *Study-Guide Tests in American History*, intended for use in Grades VII and VIII, show a total average score of 57.4 for eighth-grade pupils and a total average score of 67.6 for eleventh-grade pupils; 103 twelfth-grade pupils, who were enrolled in a course in American History, were given three review tests at the close of the first semester. The tests were composed of association, multiple-choice, and true-false items, based on the period of exploration, the Revolutionary War, and the period 1787-1840. Pupils were divided into four groups according to the number of times the pupils had previously studied the content materials, and the scores of each group were compared. There was no appreciable difference in average scores made by the four groups, and the author concludes that the results show the retention mainly of the latest materials taught in the course. Two tests, one based on civics taught in the twelfth grade, and one on civics content in American History taught in the eighth grade, were devised and administered to 20 pupils who had covered the content materials two times and to 15 pupils who had covered the same materials one time. Results showed no appreciable differences in average scores for the two groups. The author concludes that the civics content in the eighth grade made no lasting impression, and he states his general conclusion as follows:

"The practice of reduplicating material in the social science courses is not securing sufficient results to warrant its continuation in the present form."

The teaching of the social studies at the junior high school level has resulted in the introduction of many types of methods and procedures which are intended to vitalize

instruction. Mary R. Lincoln, in *Recent Tendencies in the Teaching of History in the Junior High School* (M. A. Theses, University of Cincinnati, 1926. Copies on file in the University of Cincinnati Library, Cincinnati, Ohio), has described, illustrated, and summarized the main features of many types of procedure used in the social-studies classes in the junior high school. Probably the most valuable parts of the investigation are the lists of poems, songs, and historical novels, arranged according to the major periods of United States History.

H. C. Hill and D. H. Sellers are the authors of *My Community: A Pupil's Manual for the Study of Community Life* (Ginn and Co., 1927). The manual is intended to provide enterprises and projects which will link the subject more closely with community problems in the daily life of pupils. The materials have been tested through use in the classroom, and the manual can be used with any textbook as a background for the suggested activities. The format of the volume is pleasing; the type and plans for tables and charts are clear-cut and exact. The manual may be used in the form of a bound volume or in loose-leaf form with a trifold binder.

An Outline and Notebook for the Study of Introductory Sociology, by Wyatt Marrs (Oklahoma City, Okla.: Harlow Pub. Co., 1926. Price 85 cents), is based on Blackmar and Gillin, *Outline of Sociology* (revised edition), and Case, *Outlines of Introductory*. The volume is based on fifty topics, each of which is followed by an assignment in the text and source book, a list of significant questions, and four blank pages for answers and class notes. Teachers of the social studies who have had little or no training in sociology will find the volume a handy guide for systematic reading.

The Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, *The Junior High School Curriculum* (Washington, D. C.: 1201 Sixteenth St.), is a volume which contains much material of interest to teachers of the social studies. Chapter XII, "Junior High School Social Studies," prepared by a committee of eight persons, contains: an introduction covering the scope of the field; a discussion of objectives, summaries of fifteen investigations made during the past two years; a summary of trends in thirty-one recent courses of study; outlines of the main divisions of courses of study; outlines of the main divisions of courses of study used in Horace Mann School (New York City), Denver, and St. Louis; a discussion of training in citizenship; a presentation of the articulation of the social studies in different types of schools; a discussion on teaching pupils how to study; and a discussion of professional training of social studies teachers, which includes the findings of an unpublished study by E. U. Rugg and R. H. Dearborn.

Current Events Yearbook, 1927, compiled by R. S. Kimball (Columbus, Ohio: American Education Press, Inc., 1927), is a loose-leaf volume of 71 pages, which contains much information of value in accessible form for teachers and pupils in courses in the social studies. It includes, among many items, a résumé of principal events of 1926, a list of prominent governmental officials, the roster of the Seventieth Congress, brief statements on the federal income tax, the public debt, co-operative marketing, naturalization, and flag etiquette. Much of the materials may be found in yearly books of references and almanacs issued by other organizations, but the value of the publication is the selection of materials on the basis of interest in the teaching of the social studies. The loose-leaf binder makes possible the filing of materials according to the use to be made of them.

Teachers of social-studies courses at the junior high school level and authors of textbooks will be particularly interested in F. D. Keboch's "Variability of Word-Difficulty in Five American History Texts," in the January number of *Journal of Educational Research*. The method

of the investigation included the tabulation of the words on every fifth page of each book until a total of forty-five pages had been obtained. More common words, as indicated by Thorndike's *Word Book*, were eliminated, and the data were then treated statistically. Results show that there is no marked variability in word-difficulty in the five texts; in fact, there is a marked uniformity in word-difficulty in all the volumes. Comparative data are presented for each book.

Helen Thurston, in the January number of the *University High School Journal* (Berkeley, California), presents the main features of the organization and activities of an eighth-grade class in civics, entitled, "Democracy in the Classroom." The constitution of the class is included, and a graph gives a clear presentation of the committees, their work and their responsibilities.

Walter C. Pankratz, in "Making History Interesting to High School Students," in the February number of *Education*, discusses the problems of overcoming lack of interest in history and methods often used to arouse and stimulate interest. The major portion of this eighteen-page résumé deals with most of the methods now in vogue, and should be read with profit by beginning teachers. Experienced teachers may wish to check the suggested methods for use in their classroom. The same publication contains a citizenship rating scale, by Edward L. Hill. The scale is sub-divided as follows: health practices, co-operation, industry, reliability, courtesy, efficiency, and moral strength. Each of the characteristics is differentiated by means of four to ten particular items or points. The highest possible score is 44 points. The data obtained through the use of the rating scale are used in providing "marks in citizenship."

Teachers of the social studies seem to give too little thought to what pupils think of the types of courses offered and the purposes of instruction. Bess Goodykoontz, in "Values Which Pupils See in Geography and History," in the November-December number of *University of Pittsburgh School of Education Journal*, presents results tabulated from papers written by more than one thousand pupils in four school systems in Pennsylvania, ranging through grades IV-VIII. Most of the responses seem to show that the main purpose is the assimilation of facts without any conception of their use in gaining an understanding of history and geography. From a study of pupils' responses, the writer concludes:

- "1. Pupils are apt to see the facts of the content subjects as their big value.
2. Pupils do not readily make the transfer of knowledge of facts to using those facts as a basis for understanding of their own present situations.
3. The leisure values of these social studies have an open field for development."

The Italian Literary Guide Service, Brookside Studio, Darien, Conn., in collaboration with the Italy-America Society, 25 West 43d Street, New York City, publishes monthly an attractive bulletin entitled, "Italiana." The bulletin contains bibliographies and announcements on all phases of Italian life, history, and politics. The number, dated December 15, 1926, contains a "Time-Space Chart" of "The Unification of Italy and Contemporary European History (1796-1896)."

Teachers of the social studies welcome thoughtful and scholarly contributions in the way of objectives and procedure in social studies teaching. Dr. Frank C. Touton, of the University of Southern California, has prepared a list of objectives to be reached or approached through civics in the junior high school, and another list for American History. These are included in an article entitled, "Objectives in Secondary Education," published in the *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, the official organ of the California Society for the Study of Secondary Education, published at 2163 Center Street, Berkeley, California.

National Council for the Social Studies

REPORT OF SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING, DALLAS, FEBRUARY 26, 1927

It is probable that some of the papers and reports delivered at the Dallas meeting of the National Council will be published in full in the autumn. The abstracts of them here given are offered as a hint of the more extended statements.

SIGNIFICANT ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING BY EDNA H. STONE

Miss Stone has for many years been training teachers of history in the University of California and directing their practice in the high school maintained by the university. It is difficult to give any true notion of her paper, for the reason that it is so closely packed with illustration and argument that any abstract will fail to do it justice. Those who attended the meeting spent considerable time examining and discussing the mass of samples of the work of her pupils which she exhibited in connection with her address.

Significant activities she defines as follows: "Significant, in the sense of that which has meaning or import for life; a lasting and permanent building-in of tastes and insights, habits, 'personality,' as distinguished from the passing fancy, the 'busy-work' types of occupation, that may have little permanent value. Activities, the actions or undertakings to which the individual gives himself more or less whole-heartedly; the voluntary out-giving of his effort and energy to attain an end he wishes, as contrasted with imposed tasks he fulfills for the sake of credit or out of habit of obedience, or because it is the line of the least resistance.

"If, in actual learning, changes must take place in the learner, the most effective procedure for bringing about these changes should be utilized. Exercises which are merely stimulating and interesting have no place in an economical scheme....It is just as important to do away with wasteful devices and materials, to set aside useless theories, to eliminate futile activities, as it is to provide protected and inspirational conditions of development.

"The significant activity is a moving force in the educative process, no matter what specific organization of steps in this learning process is subscribed to.

"Action, movement, doing something, is perfectly natural to the adolescent, especially of the junior high school age. As a rule he is active enough, his energies only need direction. Give him opportunity and encouragement, control the circumstances which may distract attention, produce conditions favorable to participation in activities which are meaningful, and a long step toward mastery will have been taken.

"The activity should always have a purpose. That purpose should be in line with the objective of the thing being taught. It is expected that some change will take place in the learner. Content, or subject-matter, which is being used in bringing about this change is composed of various units. In learning each unit appropriate activities should be directed toward *observing, thinking, understanding*, and finally *using* this unit, or the principle or attribute embodied within it.

"If a significant activity be employed the child will be aroused and thrilled, and will strive to gain the knowledge and the power to go as far with these steps as he is *able* to go."

Among the activities mentioned and explained by Miss Stone may be noted the following: the collecting of pictures and arranging them in order to tell the story that is being studied; the addition of crude drawings of cartoon character made by the pupils; the poster-roll on which are mounted pictures, cartoons, lettered comments to tell the story of some such movement as improvement in transportation and communication; vocabulary and important-date cards, with definitions and explanations lettered large on the cards; dramatization by the pupils; and the like. Most

of these activities are more worshiped than used, but Miss Stone makes it clear that practical use of them is spreading rapidly among well-equipped teachers.

"...There is more or less conviction that the *continuous procedure of the whole semester*, of teaching and learning, is an activity, a significant activity. They treat the semester's course as a *project*, which is to say that it is 'an intellectualized purposeful unit of activity.'"

KINDS OF RESEARCH NEEDED IN THE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

BY A. C. KREY

Professor Krey is chairman of the committee of the American Historical Association, which is now planning a thorough study of our purposes and methods of teaching history and the other social studies. Readers of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK have his report before them in the March issue of the magazine. Unfortunately, he was prevented from reaching Dallas for the meeting of the National Council. The following abstract of the paper he prepared for that meeting lays emphasis on the types of investigation that must be made before our problems can be solved:

"The exploratory study made by the Committee on History and the Other Social Studies in the Schools revealed great diversity in actual school practice. Courses in United States History, for example, appeared in every grade from the fourth to the fourteenth. Though over four hundred textbooks were already on the active market, in one case the same textbook was found being used in seven different grades. Analysis of textbooks for the same subject and grade revealed astonishingly wide variation not only in emphasis but even in selection of subject-matter. The conclusion drawn from this situation was that there was need for innumerable individual studies in order to place grade placement of material and selection of subject-matter on a sound basis.

"Many of these studies must be in the field of subject-matter research. Studies are needed of the economic, political, and social environment during school age in typical communities. More careful studies are needed also of essential historical, economic, political, social, and geographic information and training required in adult life. More accurate studies of capacity both in amount and kind of social information and training at varying ages are also needed. Similarly, the range of individual difference in capacity at the same age requires more studies.

"While many of these studies may be achieved by specialists in those fields or by graduate students working on thesis subjects under the direction of specialists in those fields, there is a peculiar need and opportunity for another type of investigator. This may be described as the ambidextrous type, the experienced teacher of the social studies who also has a flare for research. Many of the problems require both investigation of matter and then the applicability of that matter to the practical needs of the schools. Teachers of social studies who are continuing graduate work are urged to select thesis subjects of this kind to which they may at the same time apply both their special knowledge of subject-matter and their experience with school problems. A few graduate schools are already so organized as to afford the necessary joint guidance in subject-matter and pedagogy, and more will undoubtedly afford this opportunity."

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

BY EDGAR DAWSON

The substance of Mr. Dawson's remarks appeared in the April issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK and need not be abstracted here further than to say that he sought to lay some emphasis on an analysis of the basic purposes for which history and the other social studies may be taught. Whatever the methods of teaching used, the pupils must acquire information. This information must be so selected and handled that it will promote understanding or appreciation of facts and conditions which develop sympathy and wisdom. If progress is to be promoted, and if pupils are to grow into citizens who will take part in the effort to promote it, then they must develop respect for scientific

training and scientific knowledge; that is to say, they must realize that there is a difference between a trained leader or administrator and an enthusiast who is not trained. Underlying all our efforts at education and our efforts to promote progress lies that faith in the future of the race which differentiates useful people from cynics, pessimists, obstructionists, and defeatists in the struggle with ignorance and failure. Emphasis on such purposes as these is not meant to obscure or divert attention from the proximate purposes which direct the teaching of particular courses in the social studies.

SOME TYPES OF THOUGHT QUESTIONS AND THEIR USE IN HISTORY CLASSES

BY ELIZABETH M. MOREY

Miss Morey is head of the History Department in the Main Avenue High School, San Antonio, Texas.

The discussion in this paper arrived at the following conclusions:

1. High school pupils may be expected to decide, each pupil for himself, on the importance and relative value of the information available; and then to check his decision against the decision of the class, which he has helped to form.
2. He can be trained to diagnose his own difficulties and encouraged to bring them into class for solution, instead of regarding the classroom as only the place for more or less tiring rehearsal of what is already known.
3. He can learn to evaluate his own work, thereby seeing for himself in what respects it falls short of being good.
4. He can evaluate his neighbor's work as well, and so make it possible for a larger amount of written work to be done and evaluated without an undue burden falling on pupil or teacher.
5. Through this process a thoughtful attitude may be developed toward historical material and the work of the class in mastering it.

Miss Morey believes in a very fine type of socialization of the relation between the teacher and the pupil and among the pupils of the class. One of the exercises she described may be outlined as follows: Having studied the administration of Andrew Jackson, each member of the class was asked to hand in a list of the five most important topics in the discussion of this administration. Of the total of twenty-one different topics handed in by a class of twenty-four pupils, a list was placed on the blackboard. The class then proceeded to discuss the elimination of as many topics as possible in order to reduce the list to one on which nearly all of the pupils could agree.

Another exercise described was that in which a class was given free rein for the discussion of a sub-division of the term's work. After this discussion, three pupils were selected to report at the next meeting of the class on the subject of discussion. After these three had made their report, each member of the class marked each speaker with an A, B, C, D, or E, the speakers having been selected with a view to there being real difference in the character of their reports. The marks were tabulated on the board. One aspect of the grading is interesting in particular: "No one is so severely criticized by teacher and pupils alike as the one who grades all speakers with the same mark."

THE TRAINING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER: A DILEMMA

BY JULIE KOCH

Miss Koch teaches history in the Roosevelt High School, St. Louis.

"With the introduction of the New Social Studies into the curriculum, the university is confronted with a baffling problem of teacher training, as the candidate must be conversant with more than an elementary knowledge of history of all periods, sociology, political science, geography, and community projects, to say nothing of the general culture desired, and educational courses required by state law. If trained only for the high school, as Mr. Shryock's report shows, the prospective teacher can never hope to advance beyond that type of work. Therefore, in undergraduate days, he will be forced to decide whether he

wants to major in college or high school teaching. The danger, social and psychological, is obvious. The high school teacher, on returning to the university for graduate work, finds that what he needs for the daily routine (civics, vocations, history, etc.), will not secure him a master's degree at the end of the third summer, and so elects education and achieves an M.E., which satisfies his board, and secures the desired salary increment. But, lacking knowledge of the essential tools of his trade, he is by no means a better social studies teacher than he was before, and the impetus to study is gone. It was suggested that this phase of teacher training be one considered by the American Historical Association in its survey.

"The courses needed by the teacher to meet the new requirements were detailed with a plea for linguistic training, inasmuch as the graduate student is handicapped ever afterwards in European History unless his background is rich in that respect, and the greatest cure for stagnation is stimulating, difficult graduate work with a group of students with whom he seldom has the chance to mingle. The suggestion was hazarded that universities experiment with the plan of the University of Michigan of offering reading courses to graduate students, teaching in high schools, along the lines of interest and requirements of the present objectives as perhaps one way of saving many from the goose-step."

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS

BY DEWITT S. MORGAN

CHAIRMAN, ARSENAL TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, INDIANAPOLIS

The Committee on Standards confined its effort during the past year to the problem of determining (1) whether those persons who are actually engaged in teaching and directing the teaching of the social studies look favorably upon a movement to set up standards and (2) what specific phases of the process of social studies teaching especially deserve consideration for the establishment of standards to serve as minimums. An inquiry was sent to over 200 teachers, supervisors, college and university professors, and high school principals. Replies were received from 125. The inquiry asked for opinions as to the desirability of establishing standards upon specific items falling within the range of the following four heads (1) Organization of the curriculum; (2) Method of class procedure; (3) Equipment; (4) Pupil's achievement.

"While the number of replies is relatively not large—the list of those replying is highly representative of the thought of those who are taking a constructive part in developing the work of the social studies in the schools. The study establishes the fact that a large majority of those who replied are favorable to a movement to establish standards to serve as minimums; that they believe that the benefits of such procedure will far outweigh any possible evils that might result from a standard-setting movement. From the replies the Committee on Standards concludes that a need for standards is deeply felt by those who are interested in the social studies and that a movement for setting such standards will receive the support of the social science people in the field.

"The record of replies indicates that opinions are most nearly unanimous for the standardization of the following items: (1) social concepts which need emphasis; (2) vocabulary analysis and study; (3) map equipment; (4) supplementary reading; (5) measures of pupil achievement. A great degree of unanimity prevails, however, for (5) establishment of standards of nomenclature of courses; (6) new consideration of standards for the teaching load of the history teacher; and (7) standardization of curriculum organization.

"Those who were unfavorable to the standard movement in general, fear that it will tend to destroy initiative. The committee endeavored to make it clear that the first interest is in establishing minimums which are desirable goals.

"The development of standards of training for teachers of the secondary school, of standards for limits of teachers' duties, etc., by such agencies as the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges has unquestionably

been of immeasurable benefit. It is reasonable to presume that such procedure with respect to more specific phases of teaching will produce equally valuable results."

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE TRAINING OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

BY RICHARD H. SHRYOCK

CHAIRMAN, DUKE UNIVERSITY

The most useful abstract of this report seems to be a statement of a curriculum for such training, leaving discussion of the curriculum for the fuller printing of the report.

"The training of the teachers should involve the following more or less distinct processes: (1) general academic training; (2) orientation in the content of the courses which are later to be taught; (3) professional work in general educational subjects; (4) training in the special methods of teaching the social studies; (5) observation and practice teaching; and (6) advanced work in any or all phases of teaching these studies, to be undertaken by teachers after they have had several years of teaching experience.

"Assuming that 120 semester-hours' credit is required for the bachelor's degree in education, credit hours should be required as follows: In general academic courses, 57; in academic courses in the social studies, 30; in professionalized work in the actual courses to be taught in the high schools, 9; in general educational subjects, 12; in the special methods of teaching the social studies, 6; in observation and practice teaching, 6. The following specific courses should be given in each of these fields. (That part of the academic curriculum not relating to the social studies is merely suggested here, in order to show the place the professional training should have in the whole curriculum.)

General Academic Courses—

Subject	Hour credit	Year given
English	12	1 & 2
Public Speaking	3	2
Foreign Language	12	1 & 2
History of Philosophy or		
History of Art	6	4
General Biology	6	1
General Psychology	3	2
Physiology & Personal Hygiene ..	3	1
Free Electives	12	3 & 4
	57	

Academic Courses in Social Studies—

Subject	Hours credit	Year given
History	12	1 & 2
Government	6	1
Economics	6	3
Sociology	6	3
	30	

Professionalized Course in Studies to Be Taught—

Subject	Hour credit	Year given
"Civics" ¹	3	4
History ¹	6	4
	9	

Professional Courses—

Subject	Hour credit	Year given
Educational Sociology	3	3
History of Education	3	2
Ed. Psychology and		
Psychology of Adolescence ..	3	2
The Secondary School	3	3
	12	
Special Methods	6	3
Observation	3	3
Practice Teaching	3	4
Total	120	

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION

BY W. G. KIMMEL

CHAIRMAN, THE HIGH SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The excellent work done by this committee speaks for itself through the monthly publication of its contributions to the pages of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. A brief statement of the general purposes of the committee and of its hopes, both taken from the report, may be added here.

It is proposed to continue the sending of monthly contributions to the magazine, consisting of synopses of theses dealing with the social studies, summaries of magazine articles, descriptions of courses of study, notes on other publications, and news items from regional and state organizations. It is proposed to secure the co-operation of foreign correspondents in order that activities looking to the development of teaching in other countries may be brought to the attention of our members, and steps have already been taken in this direction.

The effectiveness of the reports submitted by the committee is indicated by the fact that a number of teachers have availed themselves of the opportunity to secure supplementary information from Mr. Kimmel as a result of his brief references in the magazine. A state organization reported that nineteen requests for pamphlets were received within two weeks after the appearance of a news item referring to it.

¹The exact title of this course cannot be given, since it is determined by the particular courses the students expect to teach.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PLANS AND POLICIES

BY R. M. TRYON

CHAIRMAN, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

This committee makes several definite recommendations as follows:

1. That the constitution of the National Council be radically revised with a view to setting up a governing board based on some other plan than that of representation of other associations.

2. That the self-denying ordinance which forbids the National Council to undertake any enterprise looking to the reorganization of the content or method of the social studies be repealed.

3. That a service bureau be organized under the authority of the National Council which would furnish to teachers definite and concrete aids and advice in the prosecution of their work. Several capable people might properly give their whole time to this work.

4. That the annual business meeting of the National Council be held in connection with the July convention of the N. E. A.

5. That funds be secured for the prosecution of definite lines of research in the teaching of social studies, such as Laboratory-Library equipment for the junior high school, and a number of other lines of investigation that seriously need attention.

The argument and reservation which amplify these recommendations cannot be given here. The purpose of the committee was to place clearly before the Council important matters which need serious attention in one direction or another.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The Ghost in the Attic. By George S. Bryan. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1926. 145 pp.

Yankee Notions. By George S. Bryan. Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn., 1922. 72 pp.

"Atmospheric conditions" are as important in history as they are in meteorology, but in the historical sense of the term their study presents untold difficulties; they cannot be measured nor are they easily described. It is well known that various communities and sections have a distinctive "atmosphere," a composite of physical appearances, manners and customs, habits of thought and prejudices which have become almost instinctive. To those attempting to understand and interpret this vital part of community life, the search for a revelation is often difficult and may even approach the stage of metaphysics. It is difficult to find records that were never made; therefore, the traces remaining are scattered and indefinite, generally no more than traditions or mutilated survivals. This "atmosphere" has to be sensed rather than analyzed, must be recreated as an impression rather than as a photograph. Because of the impressionistic nature of this phase of history the ideal medium for it is poetry, and there are few poets among historians.

Recently a contemporary American poet has turned his attention to this problem and has published two groups of poems that may well attract the attention of the historian. Mr. Bryan has spent much of his life in New England and has made use of many of his impressions and observations in several score short sketches and one longer poem, "The Ghost in the Attic." These verses, attractively presented by the printer, are a group of descriptions and impressions which charmingly portray features of the traditions, the characteristics, the customs, and the environment of the New England people.

No section of the country has valued more highly or has made more of its traditions; it has treasured past enterprise and activity. There was a time when the Indian peril was very real, witches were burned, delinquents were brought to the whipping post. "The Albany Roads," "Marah of Old Deerfield," "A Ballad of Dame Disbrow," and "At the Whipping Post" give vivid impressions of those days. Incidents in the American Revolution are the theme of "The Troopers and the Tory" and "On Meeting House Hill." The slave trade and other more respectable economic activities no longer in vogue are described in "African Trade," "Lost Arts," and "L'Envoi: Where." "A Rime of an Ancient Gentleman" is the story of Lord Timothy Dexter, "that gay old soul of a rare old sort." "The Ghost in the Attic" is a bit of folk-lore. This is the New England of tradition.

The peculiarities of New England people have become a by-word. The intricacies of the Puritan "complex" receive their due record in a number of verses. Yankee ingenuity is cleverly illustrated, lack of sentiment, pride, closeness, all are described, but, on the other hand, a gentler and softer side is sympathetically pictured in "The Dominie's Bible" and "Edwin Marcy." This is "human nature" as it is in New England, and presumably elsewhere. Quaint customs, peculiar community mannerisms, deep-seated folkways have here and there a few lines or a page or two; farm life, the country town, seed time and harvest, buying and selling and just living are homely themes, but they justify the poet's art. And then the environment, the course of the seasons, highways and by-roads, abandoned farms and prim gardens; these as they are in New England find their place upon these pages.

In suchwise the poet has recorded the nature of the New England atmosphere, his work leaves a definite impression, and presents to the reader a sort of vicarious

experience, the experience of having lived among a people and sojourned with them for a season. This is valid history, for it is the life of a community.

"These things, indeed, shall stand,
And worthy voices of such themes shall sing
As they have sung of yore."

ROY F. NICHOLS.

University of Pennsylvania.

Public Opinion and the Teaching of History in the United States. By Bessie Louise Pierce. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1926. xi, 380 pp.

Every liberal and fair-minded person is under deep obligation to Professor Pierce for this admirable and courageous book. For a hundred years or more various agencies have sought to control, or, at least, to influence, the teaching of history and the other social sciences of this country. With the exception of very incomplete and for the most part superficial accounts, practically nothing had been done in the way of summarizing these more outstanding attempts at control prior to the publication of this volume. The book, therefore, fills an important place in our historical literature, for it is with these attempts that it is concerned.

The book is divided into two parts. Part I, entitled, "Statutory Regulation of Teaching of History," contains five chapters, the first four of which trace the history of the legislative control that has been exerted on the teaching of history from colonial times to the present. This control, the reader soon discovers, was exercised in multitudinous ways, varying from the actual requirement of history in the curriculum and the certification of teachers to laws for implanting patriotism in the pupil and regulating the character of the texts used. Chapter five presents a fairly comprehensive summary, case by case, of the numerous disloyalty charges against teachers since 1917.

Part II, "The Activities of Propagandist Agencies," however, is even more interesting and, in some respects, more significant than Part I. In chapter six, for instance, the author has amassed a wealth of evidence indicating how from time immemorable history has been used as propaganda by dozens of different kinds of agencies. These agencies, she shows, have played and still do play a much more important rôle in shaping the content of our social science textbooks than we have any notion of. The last chapter traces the story of the various onslaughts which have been made on history texts since 1917. It includes, among other things, the attacks by the Hearst newspapers and Charles Grant Miller, the agitation carried on by certain racial groups such as the Irish- and German-Americans, the censorship of patriotic groups, fraternal orders, and municipal and school authorities. The last pages of this chapter summarize the attitude of the public so far as it is possible to glean it from the press, educators, and others toward textbook censorship.

Appendices give (1) The Notorious Lusk Laws of New York regarding instruction in patriotism, citizenship, the flag, textbooks, and qualifications for teachers; (2) the Report of the Committee of Five on American history textbooks in use in California high schools in 1922; (3) a Report of a New York City Board of Education committee appointed to investigate history textbooks in use in the public schools of the city; (4) a report of a similar committee for the city of Boston; (5) report of the proceedings of the convention of the American Federation of Labor made at Cincinnati, June, 1922, and entitled "Investigation of Textbooks"; (6) Wisconsin Law of 1923 affecting History textbooks; (7) a statement regarding principles to be followed by the American Legion school history; and (8) a report of the American Bar Association, made in 1924, entitled, "Our Citizenship Creed." An excellent bibliography is also appended, and the index is very complete.

From every angle the book deserves high praise. It is a scholarly, straightforward story and should be read by every person interested in getting at the truth of things

rather than in promoting untruths, selfishness, conceit, dynamite-laden nationalism, and hypocritical patriotism.—C.

Acoma, The Sky City: A Study in Pueblo-Indian History and Civilization. By Mrs. William T. Sedgwick. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1926. xiv, 314 pp. \$4.00.

Mrs. Sedgwick has written one of the most absorbing travel books of recent years in her study of Pueblo-Indian civilization as it has been developed at the pueblo of Acoma. It is, however, much more than a delightfully written travel book, since the author has succeeded in her "attempt to bring together and put into form for the general reader the story of that pueblo of the Keres people known as Acoma, so far as yet discovered in the records of Spanish diarists and in those of more recent historical writers. Acoma was one of the places visited by the first white explorers of the region we know today as the state of New Mexico. From the very outset Acoma excited the curiosity and even fear of the pioneers because of the strangeness of its position and the reputation of its inhabitants for ferocity."

The author has divided her study into three sections. In the first section (pp. 3-50) chapters on Mesa Land and The Citadel of Acoma are introductory. They describe the physical geography of the country, and the peculiar physical features and the appearance of the citadel itself. This description is supplemented by excellent illustrations, only two of which are from photographs previously published. The illustrations, together with several maps, serve here to make more vivid and definite the picture of Acoma, its people and surroundings.

In the second section, chapters III-IX (pp. 51-146) is a full and thoroughly documented history of Acoma from the time of the first Spanish expeditions, those of Fray Marcos and Coronado, into that region from New Spain. In chapter IX, Mrs. Sedgwick discusses the history of Acoma since its transfer to the United States. In recent years the treatment has been such that there has developed as a result a deep-seated distrust of the United States government by these Indians of the southwest.

In the third section, chapters X-XVIII (pp. 147-284), Mrs. Sedgwick has recounted the legends, folk-tales, myths, and religious beliefs of the Acomas, and discussed their social and political organization, their ceremonials and rituals, their games, and pottery.

An appendix (pp. 287-295), a carefully selected bibliography, and an excellent index complete the volume.

The study has been worked out with scholarly thoroughness and is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the American Indian. It is further an extremely interesting volume and one attractively written. The Harvard University Press has published it in an unusual style.

CHARLES M. KNAPP.

St. Lawrence University.

The American Secretaries of State and Their Diplomacy.

Edited by Samuel Flagg Bemis. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1927. Vol. I, xx, 338 pp.; Vol. II, ix, 322 pp.

Some years ago the late Gaillard Hunt, Chief of the Division of Publications of the Department of State, and James Brown Scott, Secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, conceived the plan of preparing a series of volumes which would record the history of the office of the Secretary of State through the medium of sketches of the career and diplomacy of each of the personages who have successively held it.

The two volumes under review are the first of ten which are to appear in accordance with this plan. In a prefatory note Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler summarizes the purpose of the series in these words: "These volumes are intended to record the history of a great public office in terms of the lives of the men who have successively held it, as well as the history and the development of the international policies of the Government of the United States in terms

of the public acts and expressions of the men who have been successively charged with the statement of them. The plain purpose is to bring vividness and life into what might readily become a dry and uninteresting history. By interweaving the story of the activities and the personalities of the men who have held the office of Secretary of State with the story of the work of that office itself, it is hoped and believed that a very large number of readers, both in this country and elsewhere, will be brought to take a new interest in matters of foreign policy and foreign relationship and to have a new understanding of them."

No attempt has been made, as the editor frankly points out, to present a synthetic history of American diplomacy or to present detailed biographies. That the series is admirably fitted to accomplish the aims set forth by Dr. Butler is at once apparent to anyone who will carefully examine the volumes here reviewed. In Volume I, for example, Dr. Scott, in a somewhat summarized historical introduction to the series, traces the development of our foreign policy through the Revolutionary period, stressing especially the work of Franklin and his American colleagues who labored so indefatigably during these years of alternating hopes and fears. This is followed by a seventy-five page sketch of Robert R. Livingston, Secretary for Foreign Affairs of the Continental Congress from August 10, 1781, to June 6, 1793, by Professor Milledge L. Bonham, Jr. The story of John Jay's career, as the successor of Livingston, is told by Professor Bemis himself.

Volume II sketches the career of four secretaries: Thomas Jefferson, by Professor Bemis; Edmund Randolph, by President Dice Robins Anderson; Timothy Pickens, by the late Professor Henry Jones Ford; and John Marshall, by the Hon. Andrew J. Montagu.

As might be expected, the sketches are of somewhat unequal length and quality. In the opinion of the reviewer the sketches of Jay, Jefferson and Pickens merit especial commendation. While the material for each has been garnered from many sources, it is evident from the documentation that the respective authors have leaned heavily on the State Department and upon the Library of Congress.

The biographical notes as well as the other material contained in the appendices add to the value of the volumes. The index is unusually complete for a work of this character. Finally, the publishers are to be congratulated, for the volumes are attractively printed and bound.

The Genesis of the World War: An Introduction to the Problem of War Guilt. By Harry Elmer Barnes. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1926. xxviii, 750 pp. \$5.00.

This work describes itself, with justice, as one of the first readable and trustworthy attempts to present the revised views on war responsibility. It is not only readable and trustworthy, I must confess it is comprehensive. Herein both the student and the scholar, on the one side, and the average intelligent man-in-the-street, on the other, may find a stimulating and searching treatment of the roots and causes of the Great War of yesterday.

Since the termination of the main hostilities in 1918, masses of secret documents, bright beams of new and surprising light, have been afforded us, largely through the development of events in Russia, where men are now in power who know not Joseph, and to whom the *arcana* of the guilty Tsardom are in no wise sacrosanct.

Assuredly the truth lies, remarks an American enquirer (and I cordially agree with her), in the direction pointed out by Professor Barnes. He has indeed made himself well acquainted with the evidence, and he has laid aside war spectacles. This is also the verdict of a well-known British historian (Professor Gooch), whom I am glad to call my friend, and whose judgment I honor as unusually free from alloy—the coinage of a scholar to whom justice is the touchstone.

Professor Barnes' book should serve as a worthy introduction to the study of this Question of Questions in recent political history: What are the Origins, Where is

the Responsibility, for the War of 1914? It should also serve to produce a reversal of human judgment in many minds. And with this reversal of judgment there might come, in Heaven's good time, a reversal of temper and of policy. Yet the author modestly professes that he will not be dissatisfied, at any rate, with even less. He will be happy if he can but arouse interest in his great subject, if he can but help to create a general conviction that here is an outstanding international problem, the nature and importance of which are not even yet realized by the educated world.

Professor Barnes has written these pages under the sound conviction that these problems of war responsibility are not mere esoteric matters of historical scholarship, isolated from practical affairs. On the contrary, he very reasonably regards them as absolutely fundamental in the whole problem of the present European and World situation, which rests upon a certain peace treaty or group of treaties, dominated by particular conceptions (which are misconceptions) of war responsibility. Never was any struggle, Professor Barnes reminds us, more widely proclaimed as necessary in its origins; holy in its nature; just, moderate and constructive in its aims—for the peoples of the Entente, on the one side; for the Germans and their Allies, on the other. Yet seldom has there been a world conflict and world settlement on which thinking men will reflect with more sadness.

RAYMOND BEAZLEY.

University of Birmingham.

Ancient Records of Assyria and Babylonia. By D. D. Luckenbill. University of Chicago, Chicago, 1927.

Two Volumes, xvi, 297 pages; 504 pages.

These two volumes form the first installment of a series of English translations of characteristic records of Ancient Babylonia and Assyria. Both deal almost wholly with royal annals and building inscriptions. The first volume covers the period before Sargon and the second and longer volume the reigns of the Sargonides. While the provenience of each record is usually given, there is a welcome absence of technical material which might partially defeat the purpose of these translations. At the close of the second volume there are a few pages of explanatory apparatus—Kings' list, eponym list, list of Assyrian kings, index of names and Assyrian words, a short but selected bibliography, and some tables of measure. Corrections and additions to the first volume are also noted.

Students and teachers of history await with keen anticipation the publication of the companion volumes. The problem of presenting Babylonian and Assyrian source material in a convenient form seems at last to have been solved. The publishers, the generous donor, and the scholarly author are to be congratulated. School and college libraries may profitably purchase both these and the coming volumes.

IRVING W. RAYMOND.

Columbia University.

José de Escandón and the founding of Nuevo Santander. By Lawrence Francis Hill. Ohio State University Press, Columbus, 1926. v, 149 pp.

This paper bound volume is number nine in *The Contributions in History and Political Science of the Ohio University Studies*. The work is a study in Spanish colonization and belongs to a group of monographs on the development of the northern frontier of New Spain (Mexico) prepared under the enthusiastic and sympathetic guidance of Dr. Herbert E. Bolton, of the University of California. As one of Prof. Bolton's students Dr. Hill has been able to use many of the manuscript materials in the former's personal archives which have been collected after long and laborious research, only to have been partly destroyed in the disastrous Berkeley fire.

The author attempts for the first time to tell in English the complete story of the early occupation of Nuevo Santander. H. H. Bancroft in his *History of Mexico* (vol. III) and Dr. Bolton in his *Texas in the Middle*

eighteenth century have only touched upon the subject. In Spanish the account by Alejandro Prieto, *Historia, geografía, y estadística del estado de Tamaulipas* (1873) omits much of the early phase of the problem.

The story revolves about José de Escandón, who was the moving spirit in the settlement of the province. The treatment of the life of Escandón, which filled the middle eighteenth century, is not exhaustive; nor is it intended to be, for, since this is a summary of a Ph.D. thesis written at California, only a part of the story can be told and that part emphasizes the movement in which Escandón played the leading rôle.

The book consists of six chapters, a preface, an introduction, a bibliography and an index. At the end of the work is an interesting folded map (*Mapa de la Sierra Gorda*, 1792) reproduced from the original found in the Museo Nacional, Mexico. The index is brief yet serviceable. The bibliography lists the most important references used in the preparation of the work. For the busy reader, and one who wishes a brief résumé of the volume, the introduction (p. 1-10) will be read with profit as it gives, according to Dr. Hill (preface), a "general impression of the whole subject." Chapter one is entitled, "The Borderlands of Nuevo Santander," and gives an interesting summary of the occupation of the neighboring contiguous jurisdictions; Chapter two treats of "The Land and the Natives" of the province under discussion; Chapter three summarizes "The Preliminaries to Occupation"; Chapter four, "The First Establishments"; Chapter five, "The Establishments from 1750-1755," and Chapter six gives a view of "The State of the Province in 1757."

The student of the American frontier will find many analogous situations in the movement of our population from East to West and the extension of the Spanish people north of Mexico City into this great northern region. There was a procession of progressive waves of population. In the settlement of Nuevo Santander, especially, each new frontier was peopled by families who had lived on the older frontiers. The restless Spaniard and *Mestizo* were somewhat similar to the roving American type. In both the English and Spanish colonies the natives were exterminated or pushed forward, with the exception, however, that the Spanish often intermarried with the Indians, thus reducing them to the semi-civilized *Mestizo*, or like the Romans, used some conquered tribes as a bulwark and a buffer people against the fiercer nations farther North.

Space will not allow the suggestions of further comparisons, but the student of Mexican History, and particularly of Spanish colonization, will be well repaid in a careful reading—and it reads easily—of Dr. Hill's work, which constitutes a real contribution to the general subject of the conquest and settlement of the Spanish Borderlands in Mexico.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

China Yesterday and Today. By Professor Edward T. Williams. Revised edition. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1927. xviii, 599 pp., appendix, bibliography, and map. \$4.50.

China and Her Political Entity. By Shushi Hsü, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Political Science, University of Peking. Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1926. xxiv, 430 pp. \$3.00.

A History of the Orient. By G. Nye Steiger, H. Otley Beyer, and Conrado Benitez. Ginn and Co., 1926. 450 pp., bibliography, and maps. \$1.96.

Professor Williams, in his revised *China Yesterday and Today*, has done much to substantiate the claim of his publisher that his volume is the standard American work on China. Professor Williams spent the thirty years from 1887 to 1917 in direct contact with China and her affairs, for a few years as a missionary and for most of the time as an official of the American government. But all the time he has been a student of the country to which he went as a young man, and even more important, a student

whose necessarily practical interest in the China of today has fixed the purpose of his keen and thoughtful study of the China of yesterday. His careful revision of an admirable first edition is accordingly a work of high value in which the new material, notably on Chinese origins, Chinese art, and Confucianism as a religion of the state, tends primarily to broaden our understanding of China's yesterday as a necessary prelude to the better understanding of the China of today which is at this time so much with us in our newspapers and magazines.

If *China Yesterday and Today* is to be classified as "History," as it commonly is, then it belongs under the subdivision, "Histories of Civilization," for without neglecting the chronicles of government, foreign relations, trade, and industry, which form the entire subject-matter of so many volumes, it concerns itself equally with subjects such as marriage and the status of women, education, handicrafts, the clans, the tillers of the soil, tradesmen, the professions, art, origins, and religion. Its treatment is also topical, which emphasizes its essential nature, and though it prevents a facile running account of China, this is not so much to be desired as is the somewhat detached but clear presentation of material which is successfully accomplished.

Without detracting from what has been said of the value of the book it may be added in conclusion that short homilies are numerous, but fail to mar the objectivity of the book because they are accorded separate paragraphs and may thus be ignored. One curious chapter heading which conceals rather than reveals the subject-matter has been allowed to stand unchanged from the first edition; the account of Taiping Rebellion is headed "The Apotheosis of an American" and discusses General Ward in considerable detail before giving the causes of the uprising in which General Ward became famous. A fifty-page appendix, mainly statistical, contains much that is essential and to a great extent makes reference to such publications as the *China Year Book* unnecessary.

Professor Hsü's volume carries the sub-title, "A Study of China's Foreign Relations with Reference to Korea, Manchuria, and Mongolia." An introductory chapter on "Historical Background" admirably relates Chinese contact with and policy toward these whilom dependencies prior to the establishment of the Manchu dynasty in 1644, and in the second chapter on the "Decline of the Tsing Dynasty" we are first given a clear account of Manchu policy and its weaknesses from an imperial viewpoint before we are introduced to the story of Russian and Japanese contact and aggression. Necessarily the volume deals largely with the relations of China to these two nations—Russia and Japan—but such related matters as the intervention of Germany, Russia and France in 1895, the long continued concern of England over Russian expansion into Manchuria, and American interests in Manchurian development under Taft and later under Wilson, after the conclusion of the World War, are not neglected, and the Washington Conference of 1921 is given its proper place. The author's bias at times is obvious, and for that reason can be readily discounted and does not greatly impair the value of his work, which is conspicuously faithful to the modern historical standards of the West in presentation and adds the weight of much hitherto unavailable Chinese source material to its factual and documentary equipment. Professor Hsü clearly defines his subject at the outset and adheres strictly to his definition.

A History of the Orient is the work of a former professor of history at St. John's University, Shanghai, Steiger; a professor at the University of the Philippines, Beyer; and the former Dean of the college of liberal arts at the same institution, Benitez. It is prepared for use in the United States and the Philippines as a high school text and contains running page references to Robinson, Smith, and Breasted's *Our World of Today and Yesterday*, with which it makes, according to the preface,

"a two-book course in world history, one from the point of view of the West and the other from the point of view of the East."

"The two important centers of civilization in the East—China and India—are given due attention and the spread of these cultures is traced to Japan, Korea, Indo-China and Malayasia," according to the announcement. The attention given to China and India is comparatively slight, however, with that given to Malayasia and Indo-China, of which a more full and complete account is given than of any of the other divisions of the Orient, possibly largely because the chapters on Indo-China and Malayasia are all the work of one of the authors, Prof. H. Otley Beyer. They are based, in fact, on a forthcoming three volume book by the author dealing with the history of southeastern Asia. Illustrations are numerous and sketch maps of varying value are frequently used. Related topics such as Arab relations with the Far East are treated in separate chapters. American influence in the Orient is stressed, especially in reference to occupation of the Philippines. A good short bibliography is appended, and each of the five major divisions of the text—the division in chronological—is provided with a parallel column treatment of the history of the period, related to important western events.

WILBUR L. WILLIAMS.

Columbia University.

A Short History of Civilization. By Lynn Thorndike, Ph.D. F. S. Crofts, New York, 1926. xv, 619 pp.

The author of this general survey of the civilizations of the past is already well known for his historical writings. He is the author of a comprehensive and progressively inclined college textbook on medieval history, and he has written more voluminously than any other American scholar on the history of medieval science. His writings have been characterized rather more by exacting scholarship and great learning than by distinguished capacity for clear organization and interpretative profundity. The present volume conforms to the standards of the author's earlier writings in these respects.

The field covered is comprehensive. There is a brief summary of the culture of early man in the preliterary period, which contrasts rather markedly with the large amount of space assigned to this period in the work of Mr. Wells. The nature and contributions of the civilizations of the Near Orient, Greece and Rome are then analyzed in competent fashion. Next comes a sketch of the decline and break-up of the Roman Empire, the movements of the peoples of northwestern Europe, and the rise and expansion of Christianity. Then, instead of following the conventional procedure of passing from the decline of classical culture to the development of civilization in medieval Europe, Professor Thorndike provides an admirable survey of the civilizations of the Far Orient and of the medieval Muslims. In treating medieval civilization the author quite properly emphasized the primary significance of the culture of the towns, even though the majority of the people dwelt in the country. The treatment of art in the medieval period is commendably complete and illuminating. The civilization of modern times is logically divided into two periods: one from the Renaissance to Rationalism, and the other the age since the scientific and industrial revolutions of the last century. While duly appreciative of the remarkable developments in science, technology, and industry in the last century, Professor Thorndike is sensible enough to recognize that such achievements may not be clear gain for mankind. It may well be that our material culture will far outrun our capacity for institutional control, and our scientific knowledge may become too complex to be assimilated or understood by the majority of humanity. As Professor Thorndike well states the case:

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The defects of the work were in part inherent in the task. No single person could write a general history of civilization which would be uniformly satisfactory to all. Professor Thorndike lacks distinction of style, so that the book cannot take its place as a contribution to polished or entrancing historical literature. It will attract readers by its solid and substantial content rather than by the brilliance of its form. There is little success—indeed, little effort—in the way of blocking out the great stages in the evolution of civilization and in indicating the causes of the succession of world cultures. There is little of the cosmic sweep which distinguished Professor Shotwell's famous course on the history of civilization at Columbia. Nor is there any distinctive success in interpreting the nature and significance of the civilizations surveyed. The technique employed is that of the conventional historian with a quite unconventional breadth of interest, rather than that of the historical sociologist and institutional historian. In other words, the book is a survey of great civilizations rather than a genetic study of the flow of human cultures. In treating each civilization the account is, perhaps, rather overloaded with concrete facts, the significance of which will not always be evident to the untrained reader.

Yet, it is the opinion of the reviewer that this book is one of the most valuable volumes ever compiled in the field of historical writing. Whatever the inevitable defects in the details of execution, the conception involved is magnificent and is indicative of what we should hope for when the political and military fetish has been laid to rest and the absorption in anecdotes and episodes has subsided. If books of this sort were to supplant the conventional manuals as the basis for the general introductory course in history in our American colleges and universities, we might expect an actual revolution in the intellectual standing of the subject of history and in the nature and breadth of its influence upon human thinking. All who are interested in the development and triumph of the so-called "new history" will acknowledge a debt of gratitude to Professor Thorndike for the courage, independence, and industry which have united to produce this weighty and informing tome.

HARRY ELMER BARNES.

Smith College.

The Liberty Bell: Its History and Significance. By Victor Rosewater. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1926. 246 pp. \$1.75.

The celebration of the Sesqui-Centennial in Philadelphia undoubtedly furnished the suggestion for this interesting volume. Mr. Rosewater states his endeavor to have been "to trace the whole career of the Bell from the very first, through the remarkable episodes in which it played....; to separate the fiction from the fact, to clear up some of the too many errors, contradictions, and misconceptions found in references to the Bell that have been passing as true history, to throw a clearer light on hitherto indistinct phases" (p. 3). He has therefore undertaken the task of gathering together all the known and available information on the subject of the Liberty Bell.

The material has been organized and set forth under the following chapter titles: The Fascination of the Bell; The Casting of the Bell; Proclaiming Liberty; The Saving of the Bell; The Crack in the Bell; The Legends of the Bell; The Bell Becomes a Relic; The Bell as It Is; The Travels of the Bell; The Bell in Picture, Prose, and Poetry.

These titles indicate Mr. Rosewater's rather broad conception of his problem.

In the second chapter the author begins the story of the Liberty Bell with the erection of the tower on the Pennsylvania State House and the ordering of a bell for it from England in 1751. This bell soon after its arrival was cracked by a stroke of the clapper while being tested, and had to be recast because the metal was deemed to be too brittle. The recasting was done in America, and so it came about that the Liberty Bell was the first large bell cast in America. The new bell had the same prophetic inscription as the English-made original: "Proclaim Liberty throughout all the land to all the inhabitants thereof." The chapter titles listed above indicate the scope and nature of the remainder of the volume. Chapter VIII contains an excellent description of the Bell as it is at present and of its surroundings in Independence Hall.

Mr. Rosewater has devoted considerable care and space to describing the historical background of the various events in which the Liberty Bell has figured. He has written carefully and thoughtfully and accurately. His volume is a real contribution to the literature of the subject. His is a book which will prove to be interesting to young and old alike and of real value to the teacher in the classroom.

CHARLES M. KNAPP.

St. Lawrence University.

Book Notes

A. L. A. Catalog, 1926, edited by Isabella M. Cooper (American Library Association, Chicago, 1926; 1292 pp., \$6.00), "an annotated basic list of 10,000 books...covering the entire range of literature on all subjects of all time," is the latest incarnation of a series that began in 1893 with the *Catalog of the A. L. A. Library* listing 5,000 volumes for a popular library to be exhibited at the Columbian Exposition. A revised and enlarged edition of the *Catalog* appeared in 1904, followed by supplements in 1912 and 1923. The present volume, with the aid of a Carnegie subsidy, was compiled in two years. It replaces the earlier volumes in most respects—recency, handiness, and improvement of detail—but not in scope, since 5,000 fewer volumes are listed, despite the necessity of covering an additional three years of great fruitfulness, with resulting restrictions that are often deplorable. A study of the five volumes will yield some interesting bits of social history in such items as new or extended sections (e. g., bibliographies and reference books, racial and other population problems, labor movements, mental tests and educational literature, and different types of books in such classifications as religion, poetry, drama, and fiction) and in changing standards of selection. As in earlier volumes, the lists are classified according to the Dewey Decimal System, and in most cases information is supplied regarding the full name of the author, title, publisher, price, date, number of pages. Dates of publication are omitted, unfortunately, for the fiction and for some modern editions of old classics. The annotations are only slightly critical and often not fully descriptive, such a note as that quoted for Bancroft's *History*, for example, being absurdly inadequate and misleading. In spite of its defects, many of which are doubtless unavoidable in so enormous an undertaking, the volume is a very useful one even outside of library circles, and will prove a handy reference tool on the desk of any person who has to do with books.—G.

Those who would understand the many-sided agrarian problem in the United States will not fail to read Clara Eliot's carefully prepared monograph entitled *The Farmer's Campaign for Credit* (D. Appleton & Company, New York, 1927. xii, 312 pp.). From the days of the Granger Movement and before, the farmer has maintained that he has been discriminated against by financial interests. Miss Eliot has sought first to ascertain to what extent this feeling on the part of the farmer is justified; and, secondly, to evaluate the measures which have been formulated for

meeting this alleged handicap. Chapter one is an admirable historical survey of the relations of the farmer with the money and credit system. Chapters two to five, inclusive, describe the machinery for supplying credit to agriculture prior to the recent agricultural crises. Chapters six and seven analyze the agricultural crisis of 1921, and chapters eight and nine the Government's response to that crisis. Chapter ten summarizes the situation since 1923, and chapter eleven, the last, treats in considerable detail some of the basic issues in the field of credit theory which have a direct bearing on the agricultural problem. The volume abounds in statistical material, but practically no use has been made of graphs and charts. Although footnote citations are copious, a bibliographical statement would have added to the usefulness of the book.

In *Canadian Footprints* (Macmillan, Toronto, 1926) a Toronto journalist, Mr. M. O. Hammond, provides an illustrated lecture, which commences its description with Nova Scotia and works westward from point to point of historical interest until the Pacific is reached. The historical matter is summary but never seriously inaccurate, and in general the wealth of romance associated with the scattered historical sites in Canada is admirably described. The volume is a most attractive piece of book-making.

William Roderick Sherman's monograph, *The Diplomatic and Commercial Relations of the United States and Chile, 1820-1914* (Richard C. Badger, Boston, 1926. 224 pp.), presents in scholarly manner the outstanding features of the relations of the United States with one of the leading South American countries. Three factors stand out: First, that the relations between the two countries have for the most part been of a friendly character; secondly, that prior to 1850 our diplomatic relations with Chile were handled chiefly by our merchant marine; and, thirdly, that since the American Civil War our policy has been shaped in large measure by our increasing economic interests in Chile. The book is a valuable contribution to literature of American imperialism. Citations to references are incorporated in the body of the text. Unfortunately, the volume is not indexed.

Growth of American Trade Unions, 1880-1923. By Leo Wolman. National Bureau of Economic Research, New York, 1924. 170 pp. (6x9). \$3.00. Dr. Wolman's volume is a rich mine of statistical information with illuminating narrative and comment, so objective in character that it has passed unscathed the scrutiny of the twenty Bureau directors representative of every important point of view on the controversial issues. Definite facts are made available concerning the proportion of wage-earners enrolled in unions and the membership from year to year, progress or decline of unions in various trades, foreign comparisons, women in trade unions, causes of fluctuations in memberships, effects of the World War and its aftermath, much of this information being now made available for the first time. Thirty-six statistical tables and 16 charts are included, with a full index. This scholarly piece of research reflects great credit upon Dr. Wolman and upon the Bureau, which is devoted to impartial investigation, and adopts the policy of fixing the price of its publications to cover only the cost of manufacture and distribution.

A Graphic Analysis of the Census of Manufactures of the United States, 1849-1919, is a publication of unique value made for the National Industrial Conference Board (New York: 253 pages, 11x8½). It covers fifty leading industries and deals with such items as number and distribution of personnel, value of products, expenditures, size of establishments, character of ownership, regularity of employment, hours of labor, use of power in manufacturing industries, fuel, and production. The graphs are clearly and strikingly done in color and accompanied by statistical tables. The volume makes readily and attractively available a vast fund of information hitherto available only at the expense of time and effort not at the disposal of many students.

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The reissue of Allan Nevins' *The American States During and After the Revolution, 1775-1789*, is evidence of the commercial as well as the scholarly success of a work of solid merit covering a new field but without much popular appeal. Mr. Nevins treats the transition from colony to state under popular control, the framing and operation of state constitutions, political development, fiscal affairs, the "progress of liberalism and humanity," state quarrels and friendships, the relations of the states with Congress and the beginnings of the westward movement. The author derives his materials not only from monographic studies and standard histories of states, but from an extensive study of contemporary sources including some manuscript material. The result is a volume packed with information not easily accessible otherwise, better organized than one might expect and valuable to every student of our national beginnings. Its weakest point is the absence of economic and social history of the more fundamental kind necessary to explain the political controversies and development. An excellent index prepared by D. M. Matteson adds greatly to the value of the book either for study or for occasional reference. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924. 728 pp. \$4.00.)

The people of the United States, even those who count themselves well versed in history and politics, know almost nothing about the life and institutions of their Latin-American neighbors. One reason for this has been the dire lack of well-written, intelligent accounts. Professor Charles E. Chapman in his excellent volume, *A History of the Cuban Republic. A Study in Hispanic American Politics* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. xii, 685 pp.), has therefore taken a long stride in the direction of meeting this long-felt need. The twenty-seven chapters into which he has condensed his material is a frank and scholarly description of Cuban politics. One wishes, of course, that the author had buttressed his story more fully with the economic factors, but as it stands it is a most absorbing account. One cannot read it without wondering whether the United States is not after all in a very large measure responsible for the notoriously corrupt and inefficient state of affairs which has prevailed in Cuba for the last quarter of a century. In his last chapter Professor Chapman points out some half dozen changes which ought to be made for the future welfare and happiness of the Cuban people, namely, reform of the lottery, audit of all municipal and provincial accounts, institution of courts for trying persons accused of graft, elimination of immunity from punishment of congressmen who commit crime, compulsory attendance of congressmen, preparation of new legislative codes, and the complete reorganization of education. Every well-wisher of Cuba, as well as those who desire more adequate information regarding the island republic, are indebted to Professor Chapman for this scholarly contribution.

A sixth edition, revised, of the syllabus for the now-famous orientation course, "C. C.," of Columbia College, has appeared. (*Introduction to Contemporary Civilization*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1926; 113 pages. \$1.75.) The broad outlines of the course remain the same—*Civilization and Its Basis*, *Survey of the Development of Modern Civilization*, and *Some Insistent Problems of Today*—but the outline has been further improved as a result of six years' experience and the availability of several especially prepared volumes. It is simpler, somewhat briefer, improved in form and arrangement, and the readings brought down to date. The course, though a pioneer in the field, remains the most comprehensive and ambitious of them all. The syllabus with its fairly detailed outlines ranging through all the social sciences would prove highly useful to high school teachers of the social studies or to college instructors desiring to see their subjects in new and broader perspectives, as well as for orientation classes.

Professor Raymond G. Gettell's *History of Political Thought* is a successful effort to provide in one volume of handy size a reliable and readable story of political theory from primitive times to the present. Frankly acknowledging his indebtedness to Dunning's three scholarly volumes, the author goes beyond Dunning in this briefer work by including the theory of international relations and by giving special attention to the influence of economic theory upon political thought during the past two centuries, as well as in his attention to political theory in the United States. Theories of nationalism, imperialism, and internationalism are included, with sections on socialism, anarchism, syndicalism, guild socialism, and bolshevism. There are good chapter bibliographies. Aside from its place as a college text the volume would be a useful work of reference for all teachers of the social studies. (Century Co., New York, 1924. 511 pp.)

In spite of its unpleasing title, Henshaw Ward's *Evolution for John Doe* is an excellent account, perhaps the best available for the layman. The author has read widely and understandingly both the great scientists and recent investigators, and he presents the results of his studies clearly, accurately, and effectively. Dividing his book into three sections, he presents successively a description of evolution, evidences of evolution, and the history of the theory of evolution. The current issues and problems he meets fully and squarely. The teacher of history, civics or geography requiring a brief, sound, up-to-date account of the theory of evolution with a select, annotated bibliography, will find this book admirably adapted to his needs. (Bobbs, Merrill and Co., Indianapolis, 1925. 354 pp. \$3.50.)

Readings in Recent American Constitutional History, 1876-1926 (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1927. xv, 511 pp.), edited by Allen Johnson and William A. Robinson, is primarily a case book and should prove a most useful volume to those who are interested in the constitutional development of the United States during the last fifty years. This book, as the authors tell us, is in reality a sequel to an earlier volume of the same title covering the period from 1776 to 1876. The material is arranged under five general headings: (1) Political and Civil Rights Under the Fourteenth Amendment; (2) The Extension of Federal Authority; (3) Structural and Functional Changes in Government; (4) The Extension of Democracy; and (5) The Government of Dependencies. Each of these parts is in turn divided into chapters which are prefaced by brief introductory paragraphs. While some may complain that important cases have been omitted, they will agree that the materials selected admirably illustrate the more significant phases of our constitutional development since 1876. The index, while rather brief, should prove serviceable.

Expansion and Reform, 1889-1926 (Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1926. xix, 355 pp.), by John Spencer Bassett, brings the well-known "Epochs of American History," edited by Albert Bushnell Hart, down to date. To tell the story of the last forty years of American development within the brief space in which the author of this volume has attempted to narrate it, is not an easy matter. One has to select a central theme and build his story around it. Professor Bassett's central theme is reform coupled with expansion. While he does not ignore the social, economic, and psychological factors which are the basis of practically all political and military history, these factors are often submerged or not mentioned. On pages 70-76, for example, where the origins of the war with Spain are discussed, one searches in vain for any word on American economic penetration of Cuba prior to 1898. Does not such an item as this deserve space if Dewey's exploit in Manila Bay and the Santiago campaign are entitled to six pages? As political history, however, this volume is excellent.

Examination Methods in the Social Studies. By Ruch, and DeGraff, Gordon, McGregor, Maupin, Murdock. Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1926.

This book gives an account of an investigation financed by The Commonwealth Fund and directed by Professor Ruch, the purpose of which was to discover the merits of present examination practices in the social studies, including standardized tests now available, and to discover the relative merits of such examination techniques as matching, completion, multiple response, true-false tests, etc. The scope of the experimentation may be appreciated from the fact that a total of forty different booklets, aggregating three hundred thirty-two pages of test materials, were prepared and used in the course of the investigation described in Chapter two. Nearly 9,000 pupils participated in the investigation.

All teachers in the Social Sciences will find the book both interesting and instructive. It is a simple and straightforward account of basic experimentation, which will contribute much to the formulation of a sound basis of measurement in the Social Sciences.—BEN D. WOOD.

In recent years the co-operative movement has interested an increasing number of persons, many of whom are firmly convinced that it, more than any other proposal thus far advanced, affords a sane solution for the ills of our present economic order. *The Consumers' Co-operative Movement in Illinois* (The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1926. xiv, 420 pp.) by Professor Colston Estey Warne describes in considerable detail the history of the consumers' co-operative movement in one of our mid-West commonwealths. The book is divided into three parts. Part I presents a historical summary of each co-operative movement in Illinois from its inception up to the present or through the period of its operation, as the case may be. Part II discusses the several spurious co-operative movements which have been organized to capitalize public enthusiasm in co-operation and thereby enable the promoters to reap profits. Part III presents what the author calls a cross-section of the consumers' co-operative movement in Illinois. In this part both the problems which have confronted the co-operatives and the success of the co-operatives in turn in meeting these problems are traced. Appendices list not only the Illinois co-operative societies in operation in 1923, but a description of the economic and social situation in which each co-operative was launched, the problems encountered during its history, and the present status of the organization. Appendix C deals with the subject of co-operative education in America. The book is a scholarly piece of research and merits the consideration of every person interested in the co-operative movement.

The new edition of Olin D. Wheeler's well-known and authoritative work on *The Trail of Lewis and Clark, 1804-1904. A Story of the Great Exploration Across the Continent in 1804-06; With a Description of the Old Trail, Based Upon Actual Travel Over It, and of the Changes Found a Century Later* (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1926. Two volumes; xxix, 377 pp.; xv, 419 pp.), which first appeared in 1904, is unchanged, except for a brief introduction by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh. The publication of John C. Luttig's *Journal* by the Missouri Historical Society in 1920 clears up as Mr. Dellenbaugh well says, two or three points on which Wheeler was in doubt. These two volumes constitute a veritable storehouse of facts relative to this phase of American history.

The valuable series of collected readings published by the University of Chicago Press now includes a volume of *Readings in General Psychology*, compiled and edited by Edward S. Robinson and Florence Richardson Robinson (607 pp. \$4.00). The extracts cover a wide range of materials and interests from "problems of psychology" to accounts both specific and general of the nervous system,

reflex action and instinct, habit, the special senses, imagery and association, language, thinking, emotion, control of action, personality, individual differences and their measurement. A variety of other topics are treated in the twenty-two chapters and the entire body of material is made available by an excellent table of contents and index of subjects and names. The volume was prepared primarily for classes in psychology, but in these days of the "new history" and the social studies, teachers in those fields cannot afford to neglect psychology or even to confine their psychological studies to educational applications. A collection such as this will prove very handy and useful.

Professor Kenneth Scott Latourette has just put out the second edition of *The Development of Japan* (The Macmillan Company, 1926. 245 pp.), a concise and interesting history from the earliest times up to the present. The first edition was well received and was accounted by students as being one of the satisfactory, brief histories of Japan. It has been improved by the addition of Chapters X and XI, which tell of the developments of recent years. Some of the other chapters have been revised and improved. Most important of all, the classified bibliography has been brought up to date and somewhat expanded. No one can understand the Japan of today who has not mastered the Japan of history. The government plays a more important part in the economic and industrial development of this country than in any other advanced country of the world. Why is this so? Professor Latourette, in his historical chapters, supplies the answer. This history is written by one who knows his country and writes sympathetically, but at the same time there are no evidences that he has any axe to grind other than sharing his information with others.

Adeline I. Russell's *History of the People of England from the Earliest Times to 1066* (London, The Sheldon Press, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1926, 291 pp.) is a thoroughly delightful little volume. Although intended for English children of about the age of our junior high school students, it should prove valuable for supplementary reading in the average American high school course in English history. The book is written in an attractive style, and is furnished with numerous excellent illustrations. The author uses many extracts from original sources, and tells in a fascinating manner the romantic stories of early English history, which she frankly admits to the student are not always literally true. The work gives much interesting detail on a period and on characters about which the student is naturally curious and on which our American texts are all too brief. In a few cases the proof-reading has been careless: on page 183 it is implied that Offa was King of Wessex; the dates are badly confused on page 197; the date given for Edgar's coronation is incorrect (p. 231); Tostig was not Earl of Northumberland in Ethelred's reign.

A History of American Immigration, 1820-1924, by George M. Stephenson (Ginn and Company, New York, 1926. vi, 316 pp.), attempts, as the author says in his prefatory note, "to set forth the part that immigration and immigrants have played in the political history of the United States." The book is divided into four parts. Part I, entitled, "The European Background," briefly summarizes, country by country, the reasons why Europeans came to America. Part II, "The Immigrants in America," discusses in some detail the outstanding problems to which immigration gave rise and the various proposals which have been made to solve them. Part III, containing two chapters, deals with "Oriental Immigration." Part IV, consisting of a select bibliography, is in many respects the most useful and outstanding feature of the book. The author's style is simple and straightforward, and on occasion he quotes from source material. While one may not always agree with his conclusions, especially where the subject dealt with is controversial in nature, both student and general reader are indebted to the author for preparing this scholarly and serviceable guide.

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- Mecham, J. Lloyd. Francisco de Ibarra and Nueva Viscaya. Durham, N. C.: Duke Univ. Press. 274 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$3.50.

BIOGRAPHY

- Stevenson, Gertrude S., editor. Charles I in captivity, from contemporary sources. N. Y.: Appleton. 321 pp. \$4.00.
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Colonel T. E. Lawrence's exploits form the subject of three articles in the April *World's Work*: "This Man Lawrence," by George Bernard Shaw; "How Lawrence Helped to Frame the Greatest Hoax Since the Trojan Horse," by Lowell Thomas, and "With Lawrence's Guerillas," by Thomas E. Lawrence.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912 OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except June, July, August and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1927.

County of Philadelphia,
State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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Sworn to and subscribed before me this 21st day of March, 1927.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

In asking if treaty-rights must be given up, Arnold Toynbee calls attention to the fact that these same privileges are bound up with treaty-disabilities. "In the Treaty Parts...the foreigner enjoys the right not only to reside permanently and to own real estate, but to live under his own flag and his own laws....Yet the same order of things that secures him this exceptional position in these tiny patches of Chinese territory also makes his position exceptional, in a sense unfavorable to him in the vast interior.... He pays for his extraterritorial privileges in the concessions by being denied in the interior the common rights of owning real estate and establishing his residence." ("A British View of Trade With China," *Asia* for April.)

"Canberra, the New Australian Capital," is discussed by John Reay Watson in the April *Atlantic*. Another article of current interest in the same magazine is Charles C. Marshall's "Open Letter to the Hon. Alfred E. Smith."

Contre-Amiral Degouy says of the American strategy regarding the Nicaragua Canal that it has been largely dominated by our relations, real or imaginary, with Japan. (*Revue des Deux Mondes* for March 15th.)

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Some Aspects of the Materialistic Conception of History. Oliver de Selincourt (*Journal of Philosophical Studies*, April).

The World's New Boundaries and their Historic Origins. II. Vaughan Cornish (*Empire Review*, March).

History and Politics. G. R. Stirling Taylor (*Nineteenth Century*, March).

The Opening of the Overland Route to India. Halford L. Hoskins (*Bulletin of the Geographical Society of Philadelphia*, January).

American Civilizations before 1492. Martha R. Allen (*Current History*, April).

New Light on the Discovery of Yucatan and the Foundation of the New Maya Empire. Sylvanus G. Morley (*American Journal of Archaeology*, January-March).

Fernández de Lizardi as a Pamphleteer. J. R. Spell (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).

Causes of Portugal's Twenty-one Revolutions. John M. Vincent (*Current History*, April).

The New German Constitution in Theory and Practice. Hermann Kantorowicz (*Economica*, March).

The Position of the State in Germany. F. F. Blachly and Miriam E. Oatman (*Southwestern Political and Social Science Quarterly*, March).

The Papacy and Hispanic Interstate Relations, 1195-1212. Benjamin W. Wheeler (*Catholic Historic Review*, April).

Italian Rule in German South-Tyrol. Josef L. Kunz (*Foreign Affairs*, April).

German and Italian Interests in Africa. Evans Lewin (*Foreign Affairs*, April).

Experiences during the Boxer Rebellion. Capt. J. K. Taussig (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, April).

Balkan Check to Bolshevism. A. Christitch (*Fortnightly*, March).

The Syrian Battle Mountain. M. Allen Starr (*Scribner's*, April).

The Double Tragedy of Mexico. M. Montgomery-Campbell (*Contemporary Review*, March).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The Chancery of the Duchy of Lancaster. James F. Baldwin (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, February).

Justices of the Peace from 1558 to 1688. B. H. Putnam

- (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, February).
- Cromwell and America. Henry J. Cowell (*Landmark*, March).
- The Anglo-French Entente under Louis-Philippe. Charles Bastide (*Economica*, March).
- Britain's Role in the Early Relations of the United States and Mexico. J. Fred Rippy (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- The Political Methods of the Anti-Corn Law League. Henry D. Jordan (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- The Contemplated Anglo-German Alliance, 1890-1901. Edgar N. Johnson and John D. Bickford (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- Manorial Farming. Henry Rew (*Nineteenth Century*, March).
- Sidelights on the Character of Queen Victoria. J. R. Peddie (*Cornhill*, April).
- The Scottish Parliament, 1690-1702: a Study of Scottish Parliamentary Government. I. Kennedy Stewart (*Juridical Review*, March).
- Glasgow's Ancient Craft Gilds, XVII. John C. Black (*Scots Magazine*, March).
- The Party Battle in the Irish Free State. Andrew E. Malone (*World Today*, March).
- Primitive Nonconformity in Wales. Donald Attwater (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- Some Problems of Canadian Historical Scholarship. D. McArthur (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
- The Accessibility of Archives (continued). (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, February). A statement concerning Canada, South Africa, British West Indies, India.
- GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS
- New Phase of the War Guilt Controversy. M. Hermond Cochran (*Current History*, April).
- Justifying Germany in 1914. Count Max von Montgelas (*Current History*, April).
- April, 1917-April, 1927. Rollo Ogden (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
- The True Course of Our (British) Impotence at Jutland. F. P. Evan (*Blackwood's*, April).
- Entrance of the United States into the World War. Capt. T. G. Frothingham (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, April).
- How We Nearly Lost the War. Rear-Adm. William S. Sims (*World's Work*, March). A criticism of Secretary Daniels.
- Rural Scotland during the War. John P. Maxton (*Economic Journal*, March).
- Poland's Role during the World War. John F. Smulski (*Poland*, April).
- The Rhine Problem. John Bell (*Fortnightly*, March).
- Alsace-Lorraine since the War. Harold Callender (*Foreign Affairs*, April).
- UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES
- Slavery and the American Doctrine of Equality. T. V. Smith (*Southwestern Political and Social Science Quarterly*, March).
- Church Records in Migration Studies. Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- Sources of Oklahoma History. Grant Foreman (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, March).
- Preservation of South Carolina History. A. S. Salley, Jr. (*North Carolina Historical Review*, April).
- American Economic Penetration of Canada. Hugh L. Keenleyside (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
- The United States and China. J. D. Whelpley (*Fortnightly*, March).
- Wesley's Influence upon the United States of America, II. S. Parkes Cadman (*Methodist Magazine*, March).
- The Real de Minas as a Political Institution: a Study of a Frontier Institution in Spanish Colonial America. J. Lloyd Mecham (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- The Founding of New Mexico (concluded). G. P. Hammond (*New Mexico Historical Review*, April).
- Spanish Arms and Armor in the Southwest. F. S. Curtis, Jr. (*New Mexico Historical Review*, April).
- Indian and Military Medals from Colonial Times to Date. Harrold E. Gillingham (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- The Indians of the Chesapeake Bay Section. James E. Hancock (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, March).
- The Geography of the Codfishing Industry in Colonial New England. Stanley D. Dodge (*Bulletin of the Geographical Society of Philadelphia*, January).
- Mary Musgrove, "Queen of the Creeks": a Chapter of Early Georgia Troubles. E. Merton Coulter (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, March).
- Col. Timothy Pickering. William D. Chapple (*Historical Collections of the Essex Institute*, April).
- The George Washington Scandals. John C. Fitzpatrick (*Scribner's*, April).
- Washington and the Foundations of American Foreign Policy. Henry M. Wriston (*Minnesota History*, March).
- Canada and Vermont: a Study on Historical Geography. W. A. Mackintosh (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
- The Army Medical Department in the War of 1812. Capt. James D. Edgar (*Military Surgeon*, March).
- Some Notes on Spanish American Patriotic Activity along the Atlantic Seaboard, 1816-1822. A. Curtis Wilgus (*North Carolina Historical Review*, April).
- Russian Plans for American Dominion. Clarence L. Andrews (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Missouri River. (*Nebraska History Magazine*, February). A series of articles on its discovery and navigation.
- Methodism in Southeastern Indiana (continued). Allen Wiley (*Indiana Magazine of History*, March).
- Lafayette: His Visit to New Orleans, April, 1825, and the Centennial Celebration thereof, April, 1925. James A. Renshaw (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, April, 1926).
- New Light on Old St. Peter's and Early St. Paul. M. M. Hoffmann (*Minnesota History*, March).
- Military Escorts on the Santa Fe Trail. Fred S. Perrine (*New Mexico Historical Review*, April).
- Looking at Oregon Territory through Advertisements. Edith Dobie (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- Oregon Immigrants of 1844. Fred Lockley (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- A Michigan Family of Mapmakers. William L. Jenks (*Michigan History Magazine*, April). The Farmer maps.
- Little Journeys in Journalism: Michigan Press Influence on Party Formation. William Stocking (*Michigan History Magazine*, April).
- The Fort Pueblo Massacre and the Punitive Expedition against the Utes. LeRoy R. Hafen (*Colorado Magazine*, March).
- The Attitude of James Buchanan towards Slavery. James B. Ranck (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*).
- An Essex County (Massachusetts) Vessel the First to Hoist the Southern Colors at the Breaking Out of the Civil War in 1860. Francis B. C. Bradlee (*Historical Collections of the Essex Institute*, April).
- Lincoln or Lee. William E. Dodd (*Century*, April).
- Appomattox after Sixty-two Years. Arthur H. Jennings (*Current History*, April).
- Grover Cleveland as Seen by Three Friends. John Finley, John G. Milburn, Paul Van Dyke (*Scribner's*, April).
- French Opinion of the Spanish-American War. Louis M. Sears (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- The United States and the Dominican Republic. Charles E. Chapman (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- The Virgin Islands of the United States. Max Henrici (*Scholastic*, April 2).

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